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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to assess the effect of increased parental involvement in an intervention program. The program was structured to follow a prescribed mode of parent-child activities and parent-teacher communications and activities all having reference to the child's educational experiences, particularly those involving reading. Evaluations were made in terms of behavioral and attitudinal changes observed among participating parents and teachers, as well as by a number of child indices. These included: (1) level of self-esteem; (2) motivation to learn; (3) academic attitudes, and (4) reading achievement. Results suggest that the relationships between family and school environments warrant further emphasis by educators. (Author/BP)

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Technical Report No. 418

The Influence of Increased Parental Involvement in the Educational Process of Their Children

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Technical Report No. 418

THE INFLUENCE OF INCREASED PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS OF THEIR CHILDREN

by

Gregory K. Mize

Report from the Project on
Conditions of School Learning and Instructional Strategies

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August 1977

This Technical Report is a doctoral dissertation reporting research supported by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning. Since it has been approved by a University Examining Committee, it has not been reviewed by the Center. It is published by the Center as a record of some of the Center's activities and as a service to the student. The bound original is in the University of Wisconsin Memorial Library.

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- conducting research to discover more about how children learn
- developing improved instructional strategies, processes and materials for school administrators, teachers, and children, and
- offering assistance to educators and citizens which will help transfer the outcomes of research and development into practice

PROGRAM

The activities of the Wisconsin R&D Center are organized around one unifying theme, Individually Guided Education.

FUNDING

The Wisconsin R&D Center is supported with funds from the National Institute of Education; the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education; and the University of Wisconsin.

DEDICATION

To my son Paul

Who has paid for his father's academic pursuits in ways which are beyond any methods of quantification or assessment.

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ABSTRACT

In this study, knowledge regarding child development, home and school relationships, and education was directed toward involving parents in the educational process of their children. An intervention program was structured so as to follow a prescribed mode of parent-child activities and parent-teacher communications and activities all having reference to the child's educational experiences, particularly those involving reading. The major focus of this study was to assess the effect of this increased parental involvement in the intervention program. These evaluations were made in terms of any behavioral and attitudinal changes observed among the participating parents and teachers as well as by a number of child indices. Child variables that were assessed included the child's (1) level of self-esteem, (2) motivation to learn, (3) academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teacher, school, learning, and (4) reading achievement.

Thirty-four children (and their parents) from third and fourth grades of four elementary schools in a small mid-western industrial city served as subjects in this study. A pretest-posttest randomized two-group (control and experimental) design was employed.

In the intervention program, principles and procedures from two training programs were integrated into a unified program for parents to use with their children. These programs were (1) the Individually Guided Motivation (IGM) system (Klausmeier et al., 1975) and (2) the Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) program (Dinkmeyer & MacKay, 1976). The intervention consisted of a seven-week program of activities guided through three inservice training sessions for parents and teachers. During these training sessions parents received instruction and guidance on how to conduct adult-child learning activities and how to apply the relevant motivational and communication principles specified in the IGE system and STEP program. Parents, teachers, and children completed behavioral contracts to guide their participation in the various learning activities throughout the treatment program.

It was hypothesized that the intervention program would facilitate increased parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's educational process. It was further hypothesized that the educational attitudes as expressed by those parents participating in the intervention program would be improved. It was also hypothesized that as a result of parents' increased involvement in their child's educational process that these children would exhibit increased levels of self-esteem, motivation to learn, academic attitudes, and improved reading achievement. All hypotheses were statistically evaluated by employing T-Test analysis on posttest mean

scores to compare experimental and control groups. The effect of the treatment program upon each dependent variable was assessed separately.

It was observed that parents and teachers were able to employ the learning procedures, concepts, and principles presented during the inservice training sessions. Parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's learning activities significantly increased for those participating in the treatment program. The involvement of parents in the educational process of their children was reflected by significantly improved educational attitudes as expressed by parents. Significant differences between experimental and control children were observed on virtually all child variables. The impact of the treatment program was evidenced by children's significantly increased levels of self-esteem, motivation to learn, improved academic attitudes and higher levels of reading achievement.

The results of this research study suggest that the relationships between the family and school enviroments warrant further emphasis by those entrusted with the education of children. In attempting to provide optimal facilitative environments conducive to children's cognitive development, the importance of involving parents in the educational process of their children is advocated to deserve much greater attention than is presently being afforded by our society.

I

INTRODUCTION

When I see birches bent to right and left
Across the lines of straighter darker trees,
I like to think some boy's been swinging them.
But swinging doesn't bend them down to stay.
Ice storms do that . . .
Once they are bowed.
So low for so long, they never right themselves.

Robert Frost

It is a commonly accepted notion that children's development is molded by the significant forces in their environment. Much like the birch trees, affected by the ice storms in the above bit of poetry, children are likewise affected by the significant people in their lives. As the reader would suspect, parents are the major determinant force in a young child's environment. They provide nurturance, love and affection, rewards and punishment, and serve as models and examples. Margaret Mead (1962) has suggested that the assumption of the parent-child relationship as important to the development of child personality is so widespread and deeply entrenched that any justification for its importance may be viewed as gratuitous and any attack on its validity as absurd.

Recent research and educational programs have provided evidence that differences in children's academic and cognitive development

can be directly linked to the family's concern for education as reflected by parental reinforcement of their child's school activities (Brown & Deutsch, 1965; Karnes, 1970; Goodson & Hess, 1975; Gordon, 1976). In 1966, research conducted and reported by James Coleman laid the groundwork for many legislative endeavors to provide equal educational opportunities for all children. This movement was based on the notion that the family environment was most significant in determining children's academic achievement. Emanating from these studies as well as others supporting such premises came many early childhood intervention programs, such as Operation Head Start, compensatory education programs of the 1965 ESEA Act and various schoolwide curricular enrichment programs.

These educational programs sought to remedy the much reported inadequacies and inequalities of our academic systems. Inherent in such efforts was the expenditure of greater amounts of resources--most typically that of money. In light of the present economic crisis, growing costs, greater shortages, and recent studies disputing the long-assumed link between the amount of tax dollars spent on education and the quality of pupil learning, those entrusted with the responsibility of managing the educational purse strings have expressed renewed concern. The Rand report, "How Effective Is Schooling?," published in 1971 causes one to question the assumption that merely more money spent on educational practices will automatically facilitate increased student learning. With increased funding to bolster educational programs, parents have developed the implicit

expectation that the schools alone are to be held accountable for their children's academic achievement. The effect on society has been the fragmentation of children's education, thus leaving the responsibility of education to the educator without viewing the family as a significant resource.

In their assessment of the effect of family schooling, Jencks and his colleagues (1972) reported that the American society could not expect schools alone to provide equal educational opportunities and instruction for all children. They identified two additional major determinant forces: the role of the family and the role of luck. Supporting Jencks' appraisals, the International Study of Educational Achievement, as reported in 1973, concluded that the child's home was more important than his school in determining overall achievement. The report further concluded that "the number of books and magazines in a student's home had a greater effect on achievement in literature than the income and education of the student's family."

It is now commonly assumed that experiences in the early years of childhood are crucial to the growth of cognitive development (Piaget, 1963; Horn, 1972; Hunt, 1972). The scientific community has long sought to understand the hereditary and/or environmental determinants of mental growth (Hirsh, 1972). Many theorists have attempted to partition the observed variance in the intellectual growth of children into the proportion attributable to heredity and

the proportion attributable to environment. It has been suggested that such attempts to isolate the primary causal sources of cognitive growth are less than fruitful (Horn, 1972). Baley contends that the structure and development of human abilities are difficult to ascertain and that as children develop abilities they become increasingly more complex (1970). Baley has conducted longitudinal studies of the mental development of children and has ascertained that:

> Abilities which are characteristic of a given stage of development may or may not be predictive of later mental capacity . . . There is some evidence that during growth, mental abilities in females are more independent of emotional climate than is true for males. There are also some indications that for the males early emotional conditions may be more persistent in their effects on later mental growth . . . The complex interaction of genetic potential and environmental stimulation in the context of maturing and pliable neural structures, presents a setting in which the exact expression of mental abilities may be impossible to predict. However, we have in this complex process a number of indicators of the best ways to facilitate mental growth. In essence, given the undamaged genetic potential, mental growth is best facilitated by a supportive, "warm" emotional climate, together with ample opportunities for the positive reinforcement of specific cognitive efforts and successes (Baley, 1970, pp. 1201-1203).

The "nature-nurture" controversy defies a simple solution. Such well-known studies by Arthur Jensen (1973) and those of Cyril Burt (1969) provide evidence emphasizing the biological determinants of cognitive development while others as represented by Nancy Baley stress environmental factors.

In recognition of the obvious inability to alter the inate, genetic factors impacting on children's cognitive development, educators have concerned themselves with providing facilitative educational

environments to foster academic achievement.

Many contemporary educational programs and strategies have been evaluated, re-evaluated, and implemented in such a manner as to provide equal educational opportunities to all children regardless of their individual differences in socioeconomic status, intellectual abilities, personality make-up, and family background. Bloom (1964) contends that educators must recognize that relationships exist among personality traits, educational climate, and academic achievement, and further suggests that it is necessary to find effective systems of integrating these factors in order to aid in the quality of educational instruction.

A research group at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning has been studying the educational environments conducive to the cognitive learning and development among school-aged children. Normative trends in children's cognitive development during the school years have been identified through cross-sectional and longitudinal studies (Klausmeier, Allen, Sipple, & White, 1976). As a correlate of these studies which yield general principles of conceptual learning and development, striking differences among students of all ages have been identified in their rate of cognitive learning. Such departures from normative developmental patterns have been observed over short time periods and among younger as well as older children across the school years.

Understanding these individual differences in relationship to facilitative environments is of vital interest to theorists and educators concerned with cognitive learning and development. As school achievement

involves the learning of concepts, principles, and problem solving skills, it is important to identify the factors which may be associated with differential rates of cognitive learning and development. Any increase in knowledge concerning the basis for wide disparities in children's cognitive learning as related to the influences of the home and family has important implications for providing facilitative educational environments to maximize the learning process and for designing effective education intervention strategies.

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

In the past several years longitudinal and cross-sectional studies have been undertaken at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning in an effort to better understand the crucial determinants of children's cognitive learning and development (Klausmeier, Rossmiller, & Saily, 1977). Given the need to understand the variant cognitive development of many individual children as opposed to those children whose learning behavior follows normative patterns, a comprehensive exploratory investigation was conducted with two closely related purposes (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976). The first purpose was to identify those factors and conditions that seem to be the most significant concomitants of very rapid and of very slow concept learning from a wide range of potential factors, including those related to home and family, school and education, as well as variables internal to the individual. That is, the first goal was to isolate those factors that seem to be differentially associated with rapid and slow con-

ceptual learning. The second purpose was to determine which factors might be either preventable or most amenable to remediation. In these respects, that investigation was regarded primarily as an hypothesis-generating study.

Sixteen children, eight sixth-graders and eight twelfth-graders, were identified as of rapid, average, or slow conceptual development. Both younger (sixth grade) and older (twelfth grade) children were included to ascertain whether or not conditions associated with rapid and slow development were consistent across this age span. Rapid, average, and slow rates of development were defined operationally on the basis of some 150 students' performances on four batteries assessing conceptual development (see Klausmeier et al., 1973a, 1973b, 1973c, 1974).

In order to investigate a wide range of possible factors associated with extreme differences in rates of conceptual development, a methodology was required that permitted extensive and intensive exploration of those conditions. An individual case study approach was thought to be most compatible with the goals of the present research.

This research project involved gathering three major types of data. Psychometric tests were used to assess the psychological characteristics of each child. These included the Primary Mental Abilities Test, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, the Intel-

lectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, and the School Sentiment Index and Subject Area Preference Index of the Instructional Objectives Exchange. Structured interviews were conducted with all children, their parents, and teachers in order to obtain information, primarily attitudinal, not obtainable by existing psychometric tests or scales. The third type of data was obtained from school records, including grades, school subjects taken, and other information maintained in each child's cumulative folder. Test scores, child, parent, and teacher questionnaire responses, examiner observations, and school record data were interpreted, evaluated, and synthesized to produce a summary profile for each of the children.

Sixteen case studies were compiled and presented in this exploratory research. Finally, a composite and hypothetical profile --one for a rapid concept attainer and one for a slow concept attainer--was provided as a means of synthesizing the case studies. Portions of these profiles were presented as follows:

Rapid Concept Attainers

> "The families of rapid concept attainers could be succinctly described as 'supportive.' They provide the foundation and environment, rapport, and refuge of acceptance, understanding, guidance, and nurturance requisite to maximize the child's fullest potentials. Observed to be active families, they often are involved in community projects, child-oriented games, organized and non-organized sports, church, Y.M.C.A., scouts, 4-H, joint family projects such as gardens, farming, traveling, reading,

sight-seeing, attending educational exhibits, and excursions. Working and playing together highlight the family atmosphere. Daily living pragmatics such as meal preparation, housecleaning, and home and yard maintenance are often conducted jointly by all family members. Responsibility is shared as each individual is perceived by the remaining family members as a responsible load-carrying individual. These parents are generally satisfied with the educational and social development of their youngster. They perceive that their child is achieving a high level of academic success and that teachers and school administration are understanding and supportive of the expressed needs and abilities of their child. These parents maintain an active interest in their child's school curriculum and activities and are often sought out by the youngster for assistance and guidance with homework, subject area selection, and vocational and educational preparation choices . . . A high level of academic achievement is noted throughout elementary and secondary national achievement testing. Teachers typically perceive the child as a motivated learner, one with good reasoning abilities, displaying good attitudes toward school, and appearing to enjoy the learning process. The early primary grade experiences of the rapid concept attainer seem to have significant bearing upon the youngster. All these children reported good, high quality primary teachers, and often described these years as 'fun, enjoyable, and pretty good years' . . . The rapid concept attainer misses relatively few days of classroom instruction due to absenteeism. Also most characteristic of rapid concept attainers is the vast amount of time they spend reading both in and out of the classroom setting. These children typically enjoy reading and, therefore, read widely and often . . . The self perceptions of rapid concept attainers are interesting to note. Typically sensitive to adult models and societal institutions, these children attempt to fulfill all expectations that they and their parents, teachers, and peers have established. Feeling confident and responsible, these children typically express a high self-esteem and internal feeling of responsibility for their intellectual and social development. They enjoy their school and their entire academic experience. Often attacking educational goals with vigor, rapid concept attainers exude confidence largely based on their past academic successes and acknowledged abilities . . . They are able to set and typically obtain realistic social and academic goals knowing that they have support

provided by a wide range of significant others in their social environment--parents, teachers, and peers."

Slow Concept Attainers

"The family of a slow concept attainer could be described as 'detached, fragmented, and unaware.' This family may be characterized as a collective group of individuals going their own separate ways. While not always a conscious endeavor, the parents do not often express an active interest in the academic and/or social development of their youngster. Joint family activities are often lacking. Often explained by parents to be due to parental employment, these families do not take the opportunity to take part in family member games or educational projects. Seldom do these children attend educational exhibits, museums, or travel out of state. Reading development is not encouraged by providing books, magazines, periodicals, library cards, or by family reading sessions. Parents typically express a lack of awareness regarding the school curriculum, while at the same time expressing a lack of satisfaction concerning their child's academic progress. The parents are often critical of school administration and educational practices, viewing them as inadequate or inappropriate for the needs of their children. Parental expectations for their child's academic achievement level are often observed to be minimal, or unrealistic in terms of the child's ability level . . . The educational development of slow concept attainers is typically associated with failure and/or struggle. Relatively low grade point averages, academic failure notices, forced summer school attendance to pass subject areas, and teacher criticism are typically observed. Absenteeism records indicate that slow concept attainers miss several times the average number of days of classroom instruction when compared with other students . . . Throughout elementary and secondary periodic national achievement testings, these children score relatively low in comparison with classmates. For example, all the slow concept attainers in this group of case studies reported that their primary school experiences were less than optimal. Describing primary teachers as 'mean' or 'bad,' this group of children often commented on the lack of report cards or a greater number of recess periods as the only positive virtues of their early dydactic experience . . . Teachers often perceive the slow concept attainer as a child without motivation

> to learn, one expressing poor attitudes, of low intellectual ability, possessing a poor self-concept, and basically as a nonachievement-oriented person. Overt behavioral patterns exhibited by these children are most often deemed as inappropriate and disruptive by school officials. School tardiness, unexcused absences, rule infractions, and peer relation social problems often lead to school administration confrontations and/or temporary suspension. Slow concept attainers have experienced enough academic failure by the time they are ready for high school that they typically register for vocational or general educational curriculum courses, avoiding academic classes whenever possible except for state-required courses. These children typically do not enjoy reading for pleasure and often have difficulty maintaining the reading requirements of their academic classes . . . Independent of family involvement, these youngsters are often left alone to utilize their free time doing as little as possible . . . These parents expressed little cognizance of their child's actual activities or involvements. Slow concept attainers themselves perceive and express a general dissatisfaction with most areas affecting their development. Critical of school, their teachers, curriculum, and often peers, they commonly expressed a desire for an 'open' classroom setting with greater freedom afforded the student. Abolishment of homework and the dismissal of various teachers were often mentioned by these children . . . Slow concept attainers in this study exhibited low self esteem, lack of motivation toward school achievement, and little in the way of positive affect as related to their educational environment . . . Due to a developmental background fraught with adademic and social struggle, slow concept attainers were often observed to be suspicious of adult contact and typically expressed a reserved, cautious, wary stance when relating to adult authority figures. Consequently, these children were observed to experience great difficulty establishing and attaining realistic goals for their future, thus leading to further struggle, failure, and eventual self-acknowledgement as to their own inadequacies and limited self-worth."

It is not surprising that a large number of the factors and conditions investigated in the exploratory research study appeared potent and pervasive in differentiating between rapid and slow concept

learners. Many of these factors are closely related conceptually and no doubt a high degree of intercorrelation among many of them could be empirically demonstrated as well. It is very likely, for example, that a child's intellectual abilities, self-esteem, attitudes toward school, absenteeism, and enjoyment of reading are highly interdependent, and in turn closely related to parental involvement in their child's educational process, their attitudes toward education, and the type of intellectual climate provided in the home. Some of the many factors identified as differentiating are undoubtedly more basic, primary, or "causal" than others in mediating conceptual learning and development. The investigator did not address the question of ordering these factors in terms of importance, or attempt to delineate how proximal or distal their association with the rapid-slow dichotomy in conceptual learning.

The exploratory research study conducted by Mize and Klausmeier (1976) suggests that a child's rapid level of cognitive development may be associated with an array of very positive psychological and environmental conditions. It is highly probable that such a youngster will also exhibit strong intellectual abilities; good school achievement; good grades; a low rate of school absenteeism; enjoyment of reading; strong achievement motivation; positive self esteem; positive attitudes toward school, education and teachers; active engagement in school activities; positive attitudes toward parents, family, and home; and good social skills with peers and

adults. It is also likely that this high academic achiever will have parents who have high aspirations and expectations for their child, show a great deal of involvement with their child, hold positive attitudes toward school and education, and are concerned and actively interested in their child's school, teachers, and curriculum.

In contrast, the child who represents an example of slow cognitive development is very likely to exhibit marginal to poor intellectual abilities; poor school grades and achievement; a high rate of school absenteeism; in high school, a non-academic curriculum; disinterest in reading but a dependency on television; low self esteem; poor motivation for learning; negative attitudes toward school, education, and teachers; disengagement from extracurricular school activities; less positive attitudes toward family and home; and poor social skills and peer relations. The low academic achiever is more likely to come from a home with an impoverished intellectual climate with parents who have low expectations for their child, show little involvement with the child, express negative attitudes toward school and education, and exhibit little understanding of or interest in their child's school, teachers, and curriculum.

In light of the findings of the exploratory research efforts and their significance for children's cognitive development, the writer deemed consideration of further research and subsequent educational implications as imperative.

It was intended that the exploratory study would identify various child, school, and home factors and conditions that are associated with extreme performances in children's cognitive development and hopefully would result in greater and more specific knowledge concerning facilitative educational environments. More specifically, a primary goal of that study was to provide the researcher with an opportunity to generate hypotheses for future research efforts designed to implement educational intervention programming in order to enhance cognitive development among school-aged children.

While acknowledging the very limited scope of these exploratory sixteen case studies, it does appear that the research effort has provided some clues for possible educational intervention in order to enhance cognitive development. School officials are constantly seeking more efficient ways to maximize the learning process. While a group of students learn in what has been termed as a rate of rapid attainment, at least as many children are described as slow attainers. The exploratory study has shown that there may be many and far-reaching factors and conditions abetting this extreme performance in cognitive development among school students. If we accept the notion that intelligence can be nurtured and developed to a large extent rather than as a stable entity that an individual is born with and is limited by for life, then the concept of individualized curriculum instruction involving the total child's environment has merit. These case studies provided evidence showing that in addition to

children's levels of intelligence, their internal levels of motivation, self-responsibility, self-esteem, learning attitudes, and parental and teacher support all contribute to some extent, separately and in concert, to their cognitive learning developmental process.

In order to maximize the potential capacity of children, we, as educators, might do well to seriously consider some of these factors and conditions to a much greater extent than in the cursory fashion we so typically do now. If greater emphasis for educating our children were placed on the home environment and if the cooperative efforts of both parents and teachers working together could be successfully enlisted, the learning experiences of many children might be drastically altered. If parents were more cognizant of the educational process, obviously greater rapport between home and school institutions would occur. Clearly, the major reinforcing environmental conditions affecting children's self esteem, motivation, and the conceptual learning process itself are the home-parents and classroom-teachers. Educators and parents alike would have the opportunity to acknowledge, accommodate, and understand more fully extreme learning performance differences as exhibited by students.

It can be observed in Figure 1 that an intervention mode with increased rapport between the home and the classroom, parents would have greater opportunity to provide the child with a receptive,

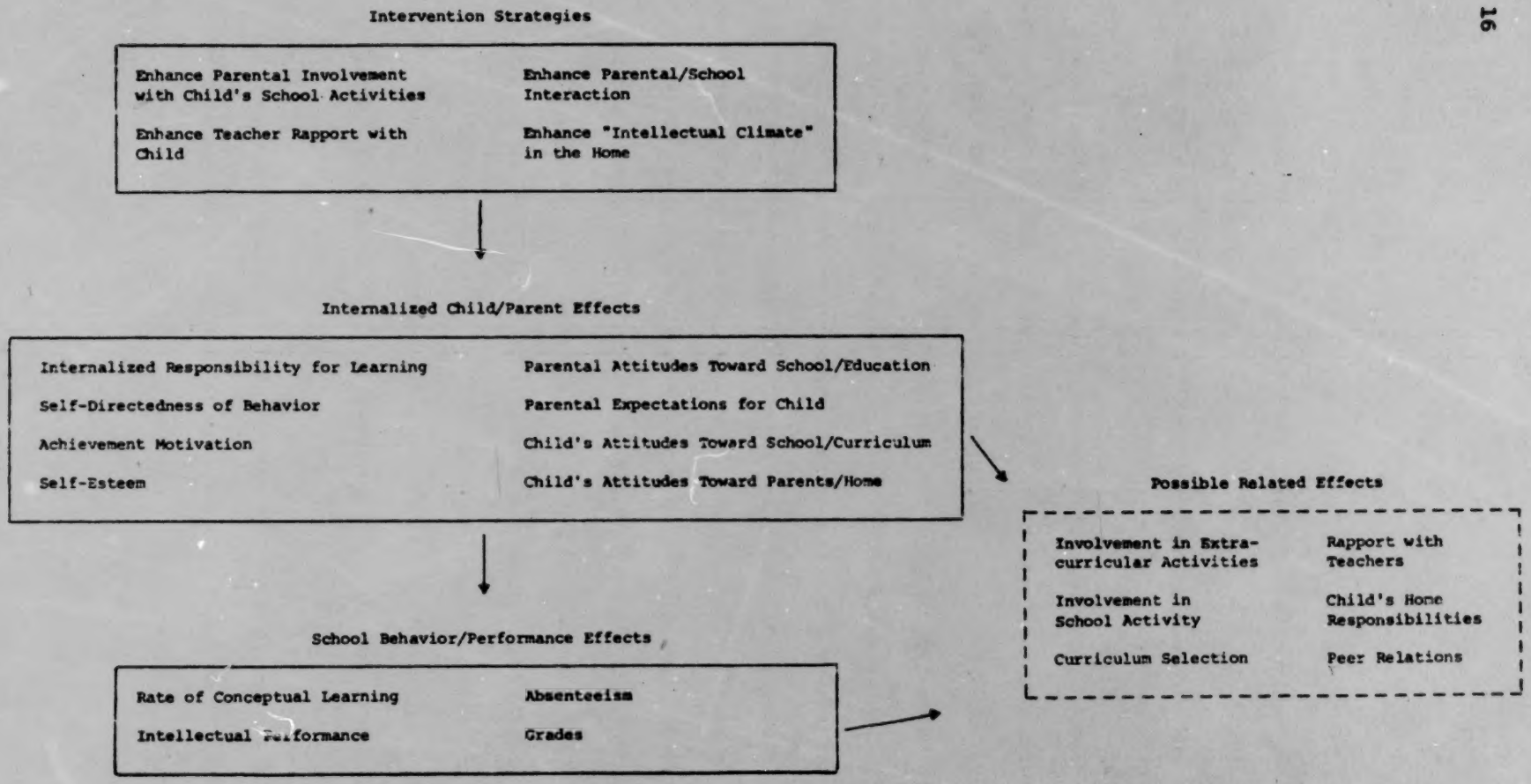


Figure 1. A proposed educational intervention strategy and the expected effects (from Mize & Klausmeier, 1976).

interesting, and supportive intellectual climate within the child's home domain. Perhaps parents would realize greater value in home reading, educational game participation, exhibit and museum attendance, and educational television viewing. Certainly parents involved in their child's academic pursuits would develop greater understanding of their child's learning experiences and development. Undoubtedly, children would perceive their parents' increased understanding of their own educational activities as reinforcing, thus stimulating their own internal self-directed learning behavior. With such teacher/home communication, parental expectations for the child's learning behavior would be decidedly more commensurate with the child's abilities and present level of development. It can be assumed that the child would perceive the parent who is knowledgeable and supportive as a positive and valuable resource for further learning experiences. When such children feel comfortable in an environment which allows them to explore and experience without a fear of rejection upon failure to master new concepts the first time they are encountered, these children will exhibit increased levels of motivation and self esteem. Positive affective components of children's personalities should typically manifest themselves in terms of children's internalized responsibility for their own learning development.

It has been suggested that children who evidence a high level of self-directed behavior motivation, self esteem, and self-directedness

in learning may typically express positive attitudes toward their school and learning experience (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976). Positive attitudes regarding school, teachers, curriculum, and education in general as exhibited by parents of these children further appears to facilitate their own child's similar perceptions. The school behavior and learning performance of children who have positive school attitudes is clearly different from that of children who exhibit negative or less than positive attitudes toward their school experiences. Such indices as a child's rate of conceptual learning, level of intellectual performance, grades, and absenteeism all appear to evidence the important effect of parent/teacher rapport, involvement and support, parent/child participation, and the intellectual climate of the child's home (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976).

It has been suggested that children who have the opportunity to grow and develop in a facilitative learning environment at school and at home invariably experience further opportunity to participate in a multitude of growth-producing school and extracurricular activities that tend to foster successful peer relationships and enhance further responsibilities for self-directed behaviors and activities (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976). An intervention program such as described here would focus on the three major environmental aspects of a child's life--the home, school, and the interaction between home and school.

While the educated reader might perceive these goals as ideal and perhaps even unrealistic, let it be said that the tools for implementing a program oriented toward the fulfillment of these goals

have already been incorporated in our educational systems. A different focus of attention by educators is what is necessary at this time to attain goals as ideal as these. Children would profit from a unified support system between home and school that nurtures active learning and augments the child's self-responsibility for his own intellectual and social development. Based on the results of the exploratory research efforts, it appeared that it would be fruitful to initiate more extensive and systematic research to develop, evaluate, and implement educational programming that would integrate the interventions posited in Figure 1.

If the goal of enhancing and maximizing each child's learning potential is accepted, then educators and parents alike must develop cooperative educational practices and facilitative educational environments to attain the fulfillment of our children's abilities.

PROBLEM

This dissertation research study sought to provide an intervention treatment program that would elicit increased parental involvement in their child's educational process. The major emphasis of this effort was to assess the effect of the increased parental involvement. This intervention program was structured so as to follow a prescribed mode of parent-teacher communication and activities and parent-child activities all having reference to the child's educational experiences, particularly those involving reading. The intervention program was developed so as to entail those factors and

conditions identified in the exploratory research (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976) to directly relate to the enhancement of children's cognitive development (see Figure 1).

This parental involvement program was evaluated in terms of any behavioral and attitudinal changes as observed of the participating parents and teachers as well as by a number of child indices. Child variables that were assessed included the (1) child's level of self esteem, (2) motivation to learn, (3) academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teacher, school, learning, and (4) reading achievement.

In order to evaluate the fidelity of the treatment program, the following questions were posited:

1. Will an educational program of parental involvement increase parent-teacher rapport?
2. Will an educational program of parental involvement increase parents' involvement in their child's educational process?

In order to evaluate the impact of the treatment program, the following questions were posited:

1. Does this program designed to increase parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's educational process improve the parents' educational attitudes?
2. Does this program designed to increase parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's educa-

tional process enhance the child's:

a. motivation to learn?

b. self esteem?

c. academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teachers, school, and learning?

d. reading achievement?

II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The history of American education is one which evidences a close bond between the home, school, and community (Gordon, 1976). In the nineteenth century, children used to receive their basic instruction--reading, writing, and arithmetic--in the community-sponsored one-room school house. The teacher in that era of American history often relied on the parents of her students for her meals and housing. Consequently, the school and the home were in close communication.

Obviously, the roles of the home and the school have been drastically altered over time. Reflective of the fragmentation of our society, educational systems have been developed so as to accommodate the ever quickening and changing growth we sometimes describe as modernization. Gordon (1976) states that "in a simpler rural and small town era, there was a common value system in the neighborhood and the family" (p. 3). Children were mutually reinforced by the two most formative learning centers in their environments--home and school. Then came industrialization, technology, immigration, mobilization, specialization, mass media, and cultural diffusion. Today, children are apt to receive their education from several

institutions, and is often bused to school buildings miles away from home. Today's child spends a far greater portion of his day out of the home and away from his parents than did a youngster 50 years ago. Society has become vastly more complex. The family of the 1970's provides its children less education, less entertainment, less vocational training, less religious indoctrination, and generally less guidance and direction than the family system of the 1920's. Society now provides these various functions designed to foster a child's development from several institutional resources often with little dependence on the resource of the family. Children now spend more time in school than did the children several generations ago. The Digest of Educational Statistics (1973) reports that just 50 years ago in an average group of 100 fifth grade children only 61 would finish ninth grade, 30 would graduate from high school, and just 12 children would go on to college. In comparison, 98 percent of today's fifth graders complete ninth grade, 75 percent graduate from high school, and 43 percent go on to college. Society has done much to separate the child's family environment from the child's school environment.

The role of the small community one-room school house was once easily understood to provide basic education, whereas the role of today's contemporary educational system has been expanded to a point of significant confusion (Gordon, 1976). Schools now suffer from the impact of considerable social change, from the debate over

curriculum offerings, textbook selection, the relationships between academic versus nonacademic instruction, and the relationship of the school to its community. By 1950 society came to expect that schools were to serve as the primary, if not the only, educational environment within which children were to learn. "The basic philosophy was to leave education to the educators, and all the educators were thought to work in the schools" (Rich & Jones, 1977, p. 8).

In 1958 at the time of the Soviet Union's launching of a rocket known as Sputnik, America launched a great national educational campaign (Seagrave, 1976). The basic goal of this campaign was to cure this nation's social ills and to lead the world in scientific technology. Great amounts of financial resources were provided by governmental agencies to improve the schools (Gordon, 1976). Schools became "superinstitutions that could do everything for the child" (Rich, 1976).

It did not take long for the bubble of hopes and expectations firmly placed on the schools by society to burst. The Rand report "How Effective is Schooling" published in 1971 provided evidence to legislative bodies, local school boards, and school officials that disputed the notion that by simply providing greater funding to various educational programs the schools could significantly increase children's cognitive development. The illusion of providing more money for public instruction to rectify all the problems of educating our youth soon became apparent. In reviewing recent studies,

research provides evidence that the critical educational environment is not in the school but in the home. It is becoming recognized that it is unrealistic to expect that the schools alone are to be held accountable for a child's educational achievement or underachievement (Rich & Jones, 1977). In study after study the apparent link between the family environment of the child and his or her academic development has been identified (Bloom, 1964; Coleman, 1966; Jencks et al., 1972). National surveys have concluded that as much as 85 percent of the variation in students' achievement scores are directly attributable to family-related variables (Bessent & Webb, 1976). In his studies of the effect of family background upon the cognitive development of children, Christopher Jencks (1972) estimates that 55 percent of the variation in children's I.Q. scores are affected by parental/family behavior and environment. Jencks further contends that a child's family background is the major determinant of that child's educational attainment, later occupational status and income attainment. Supporting the appraisal estimates made by Jencks of the impact of family background as reflected in children's cognitive development, studies conducted by Dave (1963), Wolf (1964), and Majoribanks (1972) report that approximately half of the variance in verbal ability can be accounted for by sociopsychological assessments of the family environment.

The role of the parent in facilitating their childrens' school learning is slowly receiving increased attention (Della-Piana et al.,

1968). The past decade of educational research supports the notion that the family serves as a significant variable in the learning process of children. "Today a growing number of parents and teachers are seeking the handwriting on the school wall--the writing says HOME" (Rich & Jones, 1977, p. 8).

Let us now turn to the literature that suggests what impact parents have on the cognitive development of their children.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR CHILDREN'S SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

In view of the common assumption that parental interest and involvement in a child's education contributes to the child's academic achievement, a number of questions may be of relevance to the reader: What is the relationship of a child's academic achievement to the parental variables of involvement in the learner's academic process and aspirations for the child as held by the parent? What is the parents' effect on the child's level of self-esteem, motivation to learn, or academic attitudes? Are there any clues in the nature of these relationships that would indicate which conditions and degrees of parental pressure to achieve are likely to correlate with the child's academic achievement? With respect to parental variables, how might this knowledge suggest more precise hypotheses for future research in cause-effect directionality?

Parental Effect on Children's Self-Esteem

The self is acquired and developed through the accumulated pro-

cesses of an individual's life time experiences--Coley (1902), Mead (1934), Sullivan (1947), Jersild (1952), Block (1952), Goldstein (1963), Coopersmith (1967), and Covington and Beery (1976). During early infancy the child is totally dependent upon the love and care of those responsible for him. Gewirtz (1961) describes parental-infant interaction as a chain of mutually reinforcing behaviors. Termed as "prelearning" behavior, Gewirtz suggests that these behaviors (such as crying and smiling) are the bases for later interaction behavior and attitudes (p. 232). Sometime during the early months of life, the infant has developed a mental construct of "self" (Purkey, 1970; Lewis & Brooks, 1974; Lewis & Brooks, 1975). This construct includes a large number of perceptions about himself, his thoughts and feelings which comprise the awareness of his individual existence (Purkey, 1970). The young child has now learned to discriminate "self" from "others" and has more importantly begun to sense his value and worth as a human being--developing a self-concept. Manis (1958) contends that together the mother and father are critical in molding and maintaining the child's self-concept. Studies by Manis (1958) and Brookover (1965) provide evidence that the child's level of self-regard is closely associated with his parents' level of regard for the child. Meyers (1966) suggests that a child develops a repertoire of behavior that is a function of the expectation of significant others in the child's environment. Symonds (1939) and Redl and Wineman (1952) provide excellent research studies evidencing the effect of parental rejection, brutality,

cruelty, and neglect upon the exhibited attitudes and behavior of young children. Block states emphatically that children's capacity to love themselves or others is permanently inhibited when parents fail to provide their children warmth and affection when they need it most--during the childhood years (1952, p. 298). Block's research indicates that children's intellectual development is stultified when they are reared in a deprived and sterile atmosphere (1952), whereas Purkey (1970) contends that a child's level of intelligence is increased by being exposed to an enriched and varied perceptual home environment.

In his studies of motivation, White (1959) has suggested that from infancy onward the child obtains a biologically and intrinsically given sense of pleasure from becoming competent in mastering the environment. Purkey (1970) states "that the early years of life are most critical in forming the child's opinion of himself" (p. 34).

In reviewing the available research, it is readily apparent that parents play an extremely important role in the development of self-regard in their children (Brookover et al., 1965; Thomas, 1966; Coopersmith, 1967; Covington & Beery, 1976). In a study conducted by Brookover and his associates (1965), parental perceptions of their children were modified in an attempt to improve pupil self-esteem and academic achievement. Parents were taught to increase academic expectations for their child and enhance the evaluations parents had for the student's ability. The results evidenced that when the per-

ceptions of the parents were modified, the students changed their self-perceptions positively as well as their classroom grades. Brookover's research has evidenced that parental influence continues through the adolescent years, as adolescent children consistently ranked their parents as "significant others" in this study (1965).

Purkey (1970) contends that the emotional climate of the family is more important than economic and social factors in determining children's levels of self-regard. Studies by Kerensky (1967) and Carter (1968) suggest that a low self-concept can exist as easily among ghetto children as it can among children in better economic environments. It appears that the causes of negative self-concepts are more psychological in nature than can be attributed to economic factors.

Coopersmith (1967, p. 236) has summarized the antecedents of positive self-regards among children in three indispensable parental attitudes and actions: (1) accepting the child in his own right, (2) laying down clear and enforceable rules of conduct, and (3) permitting the child a wide latitude to explore within those boundaries. Coopersmith describes several child-rearing practices parents can follow to foster self-confidence and a disposition to strive for success. Briefly these practices involve providing the child with rules to conform by, imposing limits for the child to judge his behavior, and providing the child with the opportunity to freely explore. In this manner children develop feelings of competency,

independence, and a sense of personal responsibility.

When major emphasis is placed on accomplishment by the parents, children appear to achieve at greater levels (Coopersmith, 1965). Entailed within this parental expectation, Coopersmith contends, is the necessary modeling and support as afforded the child by the parent which nurtures successful achievement and positive self-regard. Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) found that parents of high achievement-motivated children offered more reinforcement than did other parents. When parents were more optimistic about their child's performance, expected more of them, they were also apt to express a greater amount of praise and warmth once the child completed the task confronting him.

Covington and Beery (1976) contend that a child's orientation toward achievement is reinforced by the manner in which the parents react to the child's successes and failures. Cook (1970) found that similar teacher behavior equally affects the success-oriented student. When there exists a consistent reinforcement pattern from home to the school, academic successful type behavioral patterns are soon internalized by the student who begins to praise himself generously for success and react charitably toward failure (Cook, 1970).

Parental Effect on Children's Motivation to Learn

Winterbottom (1958) found that mothers of eight to ten year old boys with strong achievement motivation claimed they had made more demands for self-reliant behavior before their boys reached the age

of eight than mothers of boys with weak achievement motivation. The achievers' mothers also placed fewer restrictions on the spontaneous efforts of their boys toward independence. The "demands" which they imposed were for a variety of mastery and independence behaviors, of which intellectual achievement in school was only a part. They were noted to give more frequent and intense rewards when their sons were successful in meeting their expectations in these behaviors.

Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) observed parents in their homes interacting with boys of extremely high and low achievement motivation on several achievement tasks. Parents of the high achievement motivation groups held higher aspirations and expectations of their sons' performances than did parents of boys with lesser achievement motivation. The former parents also set higher standards for their sons' achievement performances. Mothers of boys with strong n achievement (McClelland, 1953) were more concerned with their sons' performances, giving approval for good performance and readily criticizing incompetent efforts. The investigators observed that while these mothers tended to be less specific about what their sons were to do, they also gave fewer options about doing various activities.

In an intensive study of parental behaviors, expectations, and values, Strodtbeck (1958) compared Jewish and Italian high school boys who were matched and stratified according to school achievement (over and under) and S.E.S. Since his groups of boys were matched according to achievement behavior, it may not be particularly sur-

prising that no ethnic group differences were found in the boys' achievement motivation. However, although the Jewish parents claimed higher occupational and educational aspirations for their sons and more achievement-related values than did the Italian parents, these same factors (high parental aspirations and achievement-related values) distinguish between over and underachievers for the total sample (both ethnic groups).

Rosen (1959) studied six different subcultural groups in New England and found positive relationships between boys' achievement motivation, the achievement orientations and occupational aspirations of their mothers, and expectations of early self-reliance by the mothers.

Rosen (1964) found in another study of mother-son pairs residing in the northeastern United States that boys (8 to 14 years) who were trained early in independent mastery and whose mothers used "love-oriented" techniques of discipline had achievement values similar to their mothers.

Compatible with Rosen's results were those of Hill (1967). In a study of middle-class seventh grade boys and their parents, significant correlations were found between mothers' and sons' general attitudes toward mathematics achievement and also between maternal nuturance and the degree of attitudinal similiarity between mother and son. However, it was found that mother-son similarity increased as participation by the father in the child-rearing process decreased. Further, the boys' attitudes toward achievement in mathematics become

more in accordance with paternal expectations as the father's warmth and participation in child rearing increased. This was particularly true when the father considered mathematics as an appropriate masculine pursuit. Hill concluded that these results supported the assertion of identification theorists (e.g., Sears et al., 1957; Mussen, 1967) that the father is the critical parent for the sex-role learning of the son.

Parental Effect on Children's Intellectual Achievement Behavior

The foregoing studies have used measures of achievement motivation and attitude as the dependent variable. In most cases the measure used was a form of McClelland's (1953) n achievement factor based on imaginative completion of visual or verbal T.A.T. type cues. Although a great deal of empirical data has been presented by McClelland and others showing the relationship of n achievement to various achievement behaviors, the two factors are not identical. Winterbottom's group of high n achievement boys, for example, were not rated significantly higher by their teachers in "school work," "general," "sports," or "leadership." The writer's subjective clinical experience suggests that underachievers will often insist (on sentence-completion tests, for example) that the most important thing in life is to "get good grades" or "to do well in school." Studies focusing on achievement behavior, then, are of particular interest.

Studies pertaining to achievement behavior include one that has

shown maternal behaviors to be influential as early as nursery-school age. V. J. Crandall et al. (1960c) found that mothers who characteristically responded positively when their children sought approval for their achievement had children who exhibited more achievement efforts in nursery-school free play than did the children of mothers who responded less often in this fashion. If the mother expressed approval for achievement even when the child did not seek approval, the child displayed especially strong and frequent achievement efforts outside the home.

A study (V. J. Crandall, et al., 1960b) with elementary school children in a day camp setting provided evidence suggesting that girls who spent their free time in intellectual-achievement activities had fathers who often encouraged and directed them toward intellectual pursuits and who had also frequently spent time with them in everyday intellectual activities. The girls' fathers were also more satisfied than dissatisfied with their daughters' efforts and evaluated the girls' intellectual competence as high. The girls who exhibited intense achievement striving while working on intellectual tasks had mothers who characteristically pushed them toward intellectual pursuits as well as having fathers who were prone to participate with them in intellectual activities. It is interesting to note that these results were not obtained for the boys. Intellectually striving boys, however, did have mothers who considered intellectual competence highly important for their sons and whose relationship with them was

one of active involvement, i.e., they praised their sons' intellectual achievement efforts and were especially nurturant and affectionate.

Another investigation (V. J. Crandall et al.,1964) was designed to assess the relationships between the attitudes and behaviors of parents of young elementary school children and the children's academic performance on achievement tests. One of the more interesting results was that girls who were especially competent readers had both less affectionate and less nurturant mothers than did girls who were poorer readers. However, mothers' evaluations of and satisfactions with their children's general intellectual competencies were positively related to these children's actual academic performances. The more proficient girls had fathers who more often praised, less often criticized, their everyday intellectual achievement attempts than did the less academic competent girls. Parental instigation and participation, when correlations were significant, were negatively associated with the children's academic performances. Neither the mothers' nor the fathers' expressed values for the children's intellectual experiences were positively associated with the children's observed performances.

Using two groups of fourth, fifth and sixth grade boys, equated on intelligence but differing on achievement test results, Rickard (1954) interviewed their mothers and found that underachievers had higher amounts of both achievement and restrictive demands placed

upon them than did overachievers. Achievement demands were found to have a curvilinear relationship to achievement, i.e., as achievement demands increased, school achievement increased, until an optimum point was reached beyond which increasing demands were associated with decreasing school achievement. Punishment was higher (.001 level of significance) for underachievers while praise was higher (.001 level of significance) for overachievers. Multiple regression analysis showed that "praise has by far the greatest weight in relation to school achievement, and that punishment has a heavy weight, though in a negative direction" (p. x).

While Rickard's results apply to maternal behaviors only, another study (Morrow & Wilson, 1967) has found support for the concept of an optimum level of achievement demand by both mothers and fathers when evaluated as family units. They compared family relations of a group of 48 high school boys of superior intelligence making high grades with a carefully equated group who were making poor grades. Using a questionnaire of 16 six-item scales (with a four-point scale for each item), each subject was asked to describe his family relations. Among the expected differences between the two groups was a greater reporting of "parental encouragement of achievement" (.05 level of significance) and of "lack of parental overinsistence on achievement" (not significant but only slightly less than the former difference by the high achievers).

As in the preceding two studies, most studies in the area of

achievement test performance have suggested that positive parent-child relations are conducive to competent academic achievement (Jones, 1955; Kimball, 1953; Tibbets, 1955; Walsh, 1956; Weigand, 1957). In at least two studies (Drews & Teachan, 1957; and Hoffman et al., 1958) other than Crandall's (1964) earlier cited study it has been indicated that academic achievement may be associated with negative parental behaviors such as rejection, coerciveness, and/or overprotection. Hoffman found that elementary school boys who perceived their parents as coercive performed more competently in the classroom than those who rated their parents as more lenient. However, it is difficult to know what actual parental behaviors are represented by elementary school boys' reports of coerciveness.

Although the results of several studies support the hypothesis that achieving children are trained early in independence (e.g., Winterbottom, 1958; Siss & Wittenborn, 1962), Chance (1961) reported that first grade children performed more proficiently on academic achievement tests if their mothers expected independent behaviors to occur in relatively late childhood. Also, V. J. Crandall et al. (1960c) did not find independence training as observed in the home to be related in either direction to the children's achievement efforts in nursery school. V. C. Crandall (1967) has suggested that part of the disparity in these findings may lie with the different modes of securing information from the mothers, different ages of children used, and differences in achievement-orientations of the groups of

mothers. She has also noted that mothers' direct reinforcements of achievement attempts (i.e., training specifically aimed at encouraging achievement behavior) has been found effective in producing higher achievement motivation (Rosen & D'Andrade, 1959) and more achievement efforts (V. J. Crandall et al., 1960c).

Bloom (1964) contends that differences in children's academic and cognitive development can be linked directly to the value placed on education by parents and specifically to the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement provided children's school activities by their parents. When the home and school are mutually reinforcing each other, optimal conditions exist for the child's cognitive growth and learning achievement. Dave (1963) and Wolf (1964), students of Bloom, have conducted studies to ascertain whether attitudinal and behavioral differences observed in school among lower and middle class children are due to socioeconomic status (S.E.S.) differences or whether they are related to non-socioeconomic status variables but other home and family environmental factors and conditions. Assessing such home factors as achievement, values, language models, parental guidance and support, learning stimulation, intellectual interests and activities of the parents, Dave and Wolf related these variables to children's levels of academic achievement. The results of these research efforts suggested that these various family variables correlated .80 with academic achievement while S.E.S. variables related to achievement at .50 or less. These authors

concluded that it seems to be what parents do in the home rather than their status which most influences the achievement of their children. Stern (1960) while conducting an international survey of parent education for a UNESCO study concluded that parents across the world are primary facilitators of their children's school learning. The International Reading Association (1965) has provided materials and programs for parents based on their belief that parents are able to facilitate children's reading skills. The Plowden Commission (1967) in their assessment of educational systems in Great Britain concluded that the role of the family is vitally important in the education of children.

Several studies have been conducted to evaluate the influence of parental attitudes and behaviors on children's intelligence test performance. In a longitudinal study, Sontag, Baker and Nelson (1958) compared children whose I.Q.'s increased during preschool and elementary school years with those whose I.Q.'s decreased during the same period. The former were more emotionally independent of their parents. Further, their parents put more emphasis on achievement; an incidental finding was that almost twice as many boys as girls belonged to the group whose I.Q.'s increased.

Moss and Kagan (1958) found in both of two separate samples of children that maternal acceleration of intellectual achievement was positively associated with I.Q. during nursery school, but not at grade school ages and was significant for boys only.

Another study (Hurley, 1959) reported that mothers of "intelligent" junior high school children expressed more acceptant and less dominant child-rearing attitudes than mothers of "less intelligent" children. These results are in agreement with the bulk of the literature, but conflict directly with the results of Drews and Teachan (cited earlier) who also studied junior high students but found correlations between negative parental behavior and pupil achievement.

The studies of parental influences on children's academic and intellectual achievement are difficult to integrate into a single theoretical framework. The difficulties include a lack of replication in methods, constructs, sample characteristics, and behavioral indices.

Some general trends that relate to the notion of parental pressure to achieve are apparent. Most studies of achievement motivation and behavior suggest that parental "pushing" and high parental aspirations are advantageous to their children's academic achievement.

Virginia C. Crandall (1967) states: "Studies suggest that high levels of active parental involvement, particularly along cross-sex, parent-child lines provide the basis for achievement motivation performance on intelligence tests, and intellectual achievement behaviors evidenced in free play. It should be noted that in each case, part of that involvement was reflected in negatively-valued parental

behaviors or attitudes such as rejection, criticality, hostility, or 'pushing' the child beyond his ability, and that this was particularly true of mothers of achieving children of either sex" (pp. 179-180).

The results of several studies do not conform to this pattern, however. The study of V. J. Crandall et al. (1964), for example, found that "instigation and participation" tended to be negatively associated with children's academic performance, and most studies still suggest that positive, rather than negative, parental behaviors are most conducive to intellectual achievement. Further, there is evidence that sons internalize the values and expectations of their fathers (rather than of their mothers), particularly when the father is warm and actively involved in the child-rearing process. Perhaps a clue for untangling some of the confusion is in Rickard's study. She found that in the case of mothers and sons, "achievement demands" had a curvilinear relationship with achievement, i.e., achievement began to taper off after an optimum level of parental demands was exceeded.

EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES INVOLVING PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

In the preceeding section, a review of research and theoretical considerations regarding parental involvement as affecting their children's cognitive development was presented. Given this empirical knowledge, many educational programs involving parents have been devised and implemented so as to enhance cognitive development among

school-aged children. A brief review of some of these educational strategies follows.

In a research study of worldwide significance, a team of Swedish social scientists reported in "The International Study of Educational Achievement" (1973) that the critical variable in children's educational programming was the home. The study encompassed 258,000 students, 50,000 teachers from 9,700 schools in 19 countries. The major result reported was that the home is more important than the school to a child's overall achievement, thus supporting the earlier findings of the American psychologist James Coleman (1966) that the child's home background is more important to cognitive development than the impact made by the school. The Swedish International Study as well as those conducted by Coleman suggest that schools must recognize the importance of utilizing parents to support the endeavors of educational systems. The Stanford Research Institute in a United States Office of Education study in 1973 assessed the major models of parent involvement in educational programs of their children. Three models were identified as (a) parents as tutors of their own children; (b) parents as employees of the schools; (c) parents as decision makers or advisors to school personnel. The evaluative results of this study suggests "In general, evidence supports the participation of parents as tutors of their own children . . . parent involvement leads to improved child achievement" (p. 32). Goodson and Hess (1975) evaluated programs which involved parents as teachers of young children. The authors state, "As a group, the programs consistently produced significant immediate

gains in children's I.Q. scores, and seemed to alter in a positive direction the teaching behavior of parents" (p. 233).

The programs reviewed in this section are in almost all cases specially funded programs which were designed to provide research findings regarding parental involvement in their children's educational programs. In most cases the children involved were considered as "disadvantaged," selected from poverty-level minority groups. Most programs are evaluated by utilizing random sampling while employing sound research designs. In most of the programs, standardized testing was utilized to evaluate results; since the field is as "new" as it is, i.e., the oldest project reviewed began in the early 1960's, longitudinal data is still scarce. Most programs, because they were research oriented, involved relatively few children; often approximately 30 youngsters. Most documented studies, to this date, have been done with preschool children. Some of these which might be considered of national significance are reported here. However, of particular interest to this investigator is the work done thus far in "regular" school grades; while there has been little documented evaluation of such programs, this literature will be reviewed as well.

Karnes and her associates at the University of Illinois developed an experimental training program of low income mothers to become tutors of their own children (1970). In a review of Karnes' program, Rich and Jones (1977) described this 12-week training program as attempting to train parents to work with their preschool children so as to increase general and verbal intelligence, exhibit higher motivation, attention

and stronger work habits as well as become "better learners in school." Parents, through training, were to become teachers of their own children, with accompanying greater parental self-worth, and a new sense of responsibility for their child's education. The program entailed weekly parent meetings in which they were taught principles of good teaching via role playing and how to make educational toys. During the week between meetings, parents were to work with their child in activities based on the parent-built toys and to keep checklists on their child's progress. The program staff made semi-monthly home visits to observe each parent with their child. While not reporting specific scores, the effect of this 12-week training program was indicated by significant Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test score differences between experimental and control groups. Rich and Jones quote Karnes as stating "that the program affected far-reaching changes in the lives of the families involved: new jobs, better housing, more involvement in community activities" (1977).

The Early Childhood Stimulation Through Parent Education Project designed by Ira Gordon as a home visitor program in rural Florida was begun in 1966 to train low income women as Parent Educators (P.E.) to enter the homes of other indigent women to teach them how to interact more with their children. Oriented toward sensory motor development P.E.'s were trained on how to conduct specific activities with mothers and their young children. Gordon utilized an elaborate and complex treatment/control design in this two year longitudinal study. Results showed that the intervention of the P.E.'s did en-

hance the development of low income children. Given the small number of home visits made by the P.E., 17 the first year and 25 in the second, Gordon considered the results very encouraging. The experimental children performed higher on both standardized measures of achievement and the project's own tests, based on the activities taught the mothers. Follow-up studies of this program made by Goodson and Hess (1975) are encouraging--all the experimental children by the time they were six years of age (1973-74) outscored their control counterparts.

The model of Parent Educator visiting homes with learning materials was carried on by Ira Gordon and others into what has become known as the "Florida Follow Through Model." As the model moved into the children's elementary school years, its design was altered to make use of the P.E. as the liaison between teacher and parent. The idea of this model was to have the P.E. develop with the classroom teacher home learning activities that would supplement the work of the school and that are realistically geared to the low income home and the possibilities of a rural, poorly educated parent. The role of the P.E. is to develop the parent as a teacher and to build children's school success through these specially designed activities that relate with the child's school work in the regular grades. Gordon and Breivogel (1976) state that their programs have shown that "The most successful approaches to educating children from inadequate family environments have been home based and parent centered

rather than school based and child centerd" (p. 100). The authors further contend that such programs introduce opportunities for organized, sustained and intellectually challenging parent-child interaction (1976).

Sprigle and Van de Reit (1969) have developed the "Learning to Learn Program" in Jacksonville, Florida, involving parents of preschool and first grade children by teaching parents about their child's curriculum, school behavior, teacher/child interactions, etc. Home activities were encouraged, but parents were not guided in home tasks, assignments or specifically defined teaching techniques. Parent attitudes and general willingness to support learning rather than specific teaching behavior were emphasized. Parents were invited to attend monthly group meetings led by the teachers. The meetings were held on Sunday afternoons so that fathers and mothers could attend. Before each meeting, parents who had not shown up previously were individually contacted. The main activity was the presentation of videotapes of children and their teachers during the regular school day. Tapes and discussions were planned to focus parents' attention on how classroom behaviors, relationships and curriculum were related to children's learning. Tapes also offered parents the role model of the teacher who worked with children in a planned, organized, successful way. Parents were encouraged to assume a similar teaching style with their child. Parents were encouraged to make the child feel that learning efforts were important. Individual parent/teacher

conferences took place three times during the first grade year in addition to the monthly meetings during the year long program.

Sprigle and Van de Reit's work with these families is quite different in its orientation from the didactic, specific home teaching approaches of the majority of other projects reviewed in this section. However, the Learning to Learn program results are most interesting. The program was effective in improving the intellectual performance and academic achievement of the children while in the program. A range of measures, standardized I.Q. and personal/social, indicated significant differences favoring the program. These results were attributed to a set of interacting factors: The highly organized curriculum and the individual approach to the children; the teacher's behavior as an "educational facilitator" and the parent education. The importance of the parent educational component is not made clear in this program. The authors fail to present any data on the presence or absence of change in parental interactions with their child. What changes might have occurred were in having parents offer continuing and active home support of and participation in the child's educational experience.

Mildred Smith has developed a home and school program in the Flint, Michigan public schools (1973). It was designed to involve parents by means of home visitors, in the daily reading and study habits of their elementary school aged children. The project proceeded on the premise that "parent attitudes greatly influence those

of their children; unless they were aware of these values, parents could not set the kind of example that would bring about desirable children's attitudes and habits toward school work" (p. 51). At the outset of the program, teachers met with the parents to explain the objectives of the program and the participation expected from the parents. The parents were asked to do such things as provide a quiet place in the home for the child to work, to encourage regular eating habits, to read to the children and listen to them read, to read themselves in the presence of the children, "to show that reading is important to the parents" (p. 51).

Materials were given to parents to help with home study: a child's dictionary (in which the parent was to write the child's name); a file box for word cards and multi-level reading materials. Parents made reading booklets for the children by cutting up primary level reading textbooks no longer used by the school. Parents were employed by the Flint public schools as home visitors to enlist parent participation in the project. Smith reports "that children were aware of their mother's participation and this stimulated additional interest and interaction on the part of the children" (p. 52). The program was evaluated by means of comparing control groups of children who represented the socioeconomic status and other background characteristics of the experimental children. The Gates Reading Test was used as a pre and post measure. Children in the experimental groups showed overall gains of 5.4 months in the 5

month period between tests. Children in control groups showed overall gains of 2.7 months for this period. One questionaire was sent to each family in the experimental schools to assess parent opinion about the school and home program. Parents responded favorably on the effects on the children and also upon improving their own academic skills. Teacher questionaires indicated improvement in the children's work habits and attitudes toward school.

Some programs have directly focused on helping parents improve the reading achievement of their children. Studholme (1964) reports a three month, six meetings, group guidance program for mothers of boys who were reading two to five years below grade level. Using a pre-post design, reading achievement, mother's attitudes toward themselves, their sons and their son's reading problems were assessed before and after treatment. Mother's attitudes were assessed by ratings of typescripts of group discussion sessions and by the Parental Attitude Research Inventory. A significant change was observed in the attitudes of mothers toward their son's reading difficulties from an initial (pre-treatment) largely negative orientation. Attitudes of the boys toward reading lessons greatly imporved and were highly correlated with the reading achievement gains observed.

Della-Piana, Stahmann and Allen (1966) developed a program to assess the influence of parental attitudes and parent-child interaction upon remedial reading progress. Utilizing third to sixth grade children with reading difficulties, children were randomly

assigned to experimental and control groups. All children were administered the California Reading Test and the Gilmore Oral Reading Test. The parent-training program continued for 14 formal group sessions plus 2 individual sessions. Training included encouraging parent goal setting of specific tasks to accomplish for themselves and their children; relating new concepts to their own experiences; providing knowledge of their own progress and the progress of their children at school and home; offering personal warmth and support to parents; developing skills in behavioral analysis and management through discussion, role playing and on-site training; and developing an awareness of their own behavior so they could see how competing habits of their own were being reinforced. An original sample of 40 reduced to 13 experimentals and 16 controls through moving and non-attendance. Using regressed gain scores (differences between actual posttest scores and scores predicted on the basis of pretest scores) the following results were obtained: Experimental children exhibited significant greater gains in oral reading accuracy and comprehension with the treatment accounting for 16 percent of the variance in accuracy and 25 percent of the variance in comprehension. Silent reading gains were not significant. The parent training program emphasis on parent oral reading activities was assumed by the authors to account for the differences between silent and oral reading results.

The Home and School Institute of Trinity College in Washington, D.C. has conducted extensive research in the area of developing educational partnerships between parents and their children's schools

(Rich, 1977). Two hundred and eighteen first-grade children from both inner-city and suburban schools were sent home with a series of eight teacher designed lab activities to participate with their parents. These activities, sent home once every other week over a sixteen week period, were accompanied by a letter of explanation from the child's teacher. These activities, termed as "home recipes" by Rich, provided parents and their children an opportunity to work together on various activities thought to reinforce and supplement reading and arithmetic learning. These activities were all methods that used resources found in any home--they were not typical homework assignments. Some examples of these short, easy activities are constructing grocery lists for the child and parent to purchase together (to increase math skills) and newspaper reading sessions (to enhance reading). Other activities involved educational toy building, calendar reading, puzzle construction, community map drawing, reading cooking recipes, shopping, mirror writing, sign reading, house treasure hunts, science exhibitions in the home--freezer inspection, water boiling, working with straws and water, lights, sounds, etc.--all utilizing ordinary items found in any home. This program was designed to be completely replicable by any teacher or school system; it involved no extra monies, no extra personnel and very little time. No additional meetings of any kind were set up between parents and teachers, and all participation by teachers and families was voluntary.

A pre-post test experimental-control group design was utilized. The pre and post testing measure was used in Rich's study was the McGraw-Hill Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. The major research hypothesis for the study was that experimental children would demonstrate significantly higher achievement gains in reading and mathematics. Results evidenced that the treatment children achieved significantly higher achievement growth in reading--but not in mathematics. Rich contends that her study has indicated that the home is the critical and determining factor in children's school achievement, and that the Home-School Institute has "pointed to the possibility and the practicality of helping teachers to help parents in their role as teachers at home, teachers who use the home and community to supplement, not duplicate, the school and thus produce higher achievement for children" (Rich & Jones, 1977, p. 125). These authors have recently published a book which contains over 200 "home learning recipes" for families to use in the home to "teach the basic three R skills." Their basic premise is that by developing an educational partnership between the home and school parents and teachers together can build children's achievement and enhance the family process (1977).

Beginning in 1975, a number of inner-city Chicago elementary schools have conducted monthly "weekend workshops" with parents and teachers to discuss how to improve their children's education. Reported in Newsweek (November 1976), "Operation Higher Achievement," as this program has been termed by the involved Chicago "ghetto"

school officials, has shown remarkable progress. Based on the notion that middle class children perform better in school than poor children because they receive support and encouragement from their parents at home, Operation Higher Achievement encourages poor parents to provide similar assistance and further provides these parents instruction on how to go about it. All participants in the program--teachers, principals, parents and children--complete contracts pledging better performance. Parents promise to provide "wholesome food and appropriate clothing" and encourage their children by reading to them and insisting that they study regularly. Students pledge that "for all these wonderful things my parents do for me I shall strive to do my best everyday." Teachers, "once fearful of parental interference," commit themselves to cooperating with parents. Parents visit their child's classroom regularly so as to keep aware of what instruction their child is receiving and to complete some lessons with their child. Teachers inform parents of academic progress and provide assistance on how the parent can teach their child at home. Teachers visit the home, and the schools lend reading materials for the families to use at home. Monthly events such as school-wide spelling contests, carnivals, etc. are conducted to involve as many parents as possible in their children's learning process. School officials report that 70% of the parents show up for these monthly events. Annual reading achievement scores of the 400 participating children improved by 1.1 years--more

than a 6 months higher gain than children not participating but enrolled in other Chicago inner-city schools. The Superintendent of Chicago's public schools has stated that this program "shows that there is no excuse for schools--even in the most depressed neighborhoods--to blame their students' failures on poverty or apathetic parents," (p. 105, 1976).

In reviewing parent training programs oriented towards increasing parental involvement in their child's educational process, a number of investigators have attempted to identify the various factors and conditions that attribute to increased cognitive development among children. Vernon (1965) has conducted a series of cross-cultural investigations to assess the "environmental influences" that underlie the development of different patterns of abilities, including reading, spelling and language ability. Vernon has identified several environmental handicaps to cognitive development:

(1) physiological and nutritional factors

(2) perceptual deprivation and conceptual deprivation during pre-school years (parents' failure to answer questions, encourage curiosity, provide reading materials, T.V., etc.)

(3) repression of independence and constructive play (over-protection and arbitrary subjection, conformity)

(4) family insecurity and lack of playfulness (parental anxiety,

irritability, punitiveness)

(5) female dominance (lack of male model for boy to identify with)

Brown and Deutsch (1965) developed an "index of relative deprivation" which correlated significantly with reading grade level scores. Among the scores were: parental aspirations for the child's schooling, child's conversations with parents at mealtime, and the number of "cultural" activities engaged in by the child. These authors have identified specific characteristics of home environment, not general socioeconomic measures which influence reading achievement.

Robin (1965) in a review of studies which examined home influence upon academic achievement and intelligence included the studies by Dave (1963) and Wolf (1964) which identified several "environmental process characteristics" as determiners of the home environment's influence upon educational achievement. They included:

(1) Achievement press--e.g., parents' aspirations for the child and themselves.

(2) Language models--e.g., quality of parents' language and the standards they expect in the child's language.

(3) Academic Guidance--e.g., availability and quality of educational guidance in the home.

(4) Activeness of the Family--e.g., extent and content of family activities.

(5) Intellectuality in the home--e.g., nature and quality of

toys, opportunity for thinking in daily activities.

(6) Family work habits--e.g., degree of work routine in home management.

The authors contend that these characteristics can be utilized as "a very powerful measure" for predictive purposes and for guiding the development of treatment programs. Robin states that "perhaps the most significant contribution of these studies is the clarification of manipulatable process characteristics of the home that are related to school achievement, particularly reading" (1965, p. 194).

Durkin has conducted a series of studies to evaluate home environmental characteristics that enhance children's reading achievement (1961, 1963, 1964). Her conclusions recommend that future programs should focus on parent/social process variables rather than gross S.E.S. classifications. Durkin further contends that in light of the specific home factors associated with children's reading that it is necessary that schools incorporate home-school reading programs in their curriculum (1964).

Bessent and Webb state that "it is essential to the success of family based programs that they (schools) stress in philosophy and operation the central importance of the parent in the life of the child. Evidence seems to indicate that programs succeed in proportion to the emphasis they attach to parents in the education of their child. Anything that supports the parent role and underlines

the significance of positive interacting patterns between parent and child heightens the chances of successful child development and enhances the development of social skills of the parent, as well" (p. 100, 1976).

Hymes (1953) in his evaluation of effective home-school relationships concludes that an important flow of information takes place when teachers make home visits and when parents visit the school. He suggests that when teachers visit the home, they receive information which will assist them in tailoring the student's program to their individual needs, interests and abilities. Parental school visits provide them with information regarding their child's teacher and educational curriculum.

Bowman and Morgan stress the value of school staff reaching out to families as they state that such communication "means searching out opportunities for two-way communication between parents and teachers about each individual child. It means helping the parents support the child's in-school learning in his out-of-school experiences. It means a climate in the school from receptionist to principal which invites and respects the parents' contribution" (p. 3, 1969).

Studies by Schiff (1963) focus on the effectiveness of parent/teacher conferences designed to offer parents guidance on how to conduct home lessons with their children as compared with parents receiving only standard report cards from their child's teacher.

Schiff observed that children whose parents had been involved in the parent training conferences had better school attendance, better study habits, fewer behavioral problems and greater gains in reading than those students whose parents had only received student report cards.

Sestak and Frerich summarize the philosophy of many authors when they state:

> "School-community relations is a two-way street. It means understanding the other party--the public--so that it can be helped to understand you the school. It means listening as well as talking. It is not the mere giving of information because this does not guarantee understanding. Real understanding is best cultivated by the interaction of school and community through a variety of contacts and by those human relationships that bring about mutual respect." (p. 118, 1969)

In supporting such philosophy, research by Hicks (1967) has discovered that students of parents with positive attitudes about schools, themselves and their children have higher academic achievement, social adjustment and emotional stability. Students whose parents do not support the school have lower achievement, motivation and school interest. Hicks contends that parents need to be involved in school activities in order to improve not only their own attitudes but also to influence their children's attitudes and achievement in a positive direction.

A Review of Programs Entailed in this Research Project

At the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, programatic research on cognitive learning and development

and instructional programing for the individual student has been conducted to clarify conditions within the learner and conditions within the learning environment that facilitate effective academic achievement by children. An effective system of integrating these student and environmental conditions into a quality instructional program has been developed and widely implemented on a national basis. The model of Individually Guided Education (IGE) is a comprehensive system of education and instruction designed to enhance academic achievement (Klausmeier, Rossmiller & Saily, 1977). This is accomplished by identifying and providing for student differences such as rate of learning, levels of motivation, learning style, and other individual learner characteristics.

It appeared that an IGE system (which encompasses the principle that family influence and involvement are critical to the support of the IGE school and the child's success in the instructional program), would be an excellent system within which to implement a parent involvement program. This need had been expressed by many colleagues at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning who have evaluated the implementation of the IGE system in various schools (Bowles & Fruth, 1976; Krupa, Klenke & Miles, 1976; Murray, 1976; Nerlinger, 1976).

As a major component of the IGE system "Home-School-Community" relations have been the focus of recent attention by investigators at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center. It has been stated

that "planning, carrying out and evaluating an IGE instructional program . . . can only be gained through comprehensive knowledge and appreciation of the home and community . . . and to create and maintain an optimal learning situation for students--a goal of IGE--the students, staff, parents and other citizens who make up the IGE school community must understand mutually each other's resources and expectations" (p. 259, Fruth, Bowles & Moser, 1977).

The goals of an IGE home-school-community relations program are:

(1) "To make the IGE school staff aware of and responsive to the educational expectations and available resources of the community, parents and students."

(2) "To make the community, parents and students aware of and responsive to the characteristics of the instructional program as implemented in IGE."

(3) "To identify and utilize ways and means of actively involving both staff and community in the awareness, commitment, changeover, refinement and renewal phases and implementing IGE in the school" (Fruth, Bowles, Moser, 1977).

These authors contend that for a program of home-school-community relations to be effective that school staff must work very closely with parents. "Educators will need to expand the current 'open door' policy and adopt a 'go-out-the-door' policy in relating to the school community" (Fruth, Bowles & Moser, p. 262, 1977). They fur-

ther submit that educators must realize that they do not hold a "monopoly" on expertise regarding educational philosophy, policy and practice and must recognize and seek the resources of parents. The IGE home-school-community program recognizes and respects the child's family as most influential of the child's attitudes, abilities and skills. It is assumed that the child's learning potential will be increased if the classroom teacher understands these influences and is aware of the social and political context in which the school operates (Fruth, Bowles & Moser, 1977).

Providing effective instructional programming so as to develop and maintain children's motivation to learn has been a primary objective for IGE schools. Within the model of IGE a component known as the Individually Guided Motivation (IGM) system (Klausmeier, Jeter, Quilling, Frayer & Allen, 1975) has attempted to meet the needs of educators in their attempts to motivate school children. A brief overview of this system follows.

Overview of IGM

The primary purpose of the IGM system is to provide teachers with a systematic flexible program within which student motivation can be developed and maintained. Specific attention is given to the unique needs, attitudes and characteristics of the individual child. The IGM system is intended to provide teachers with a knowledge of motivational principles and skills which are applicable in the school setting. Classroom motivational procedures have been devel-

oped to be incorporated in a total instructional program, which can be tailored to the needs of the individual student.

A number of principles as derived from theory and research on motivation are the basis for the major program elements of the IGM system. It can be observed in Table 1 that there have been six motivational principles identified. Corollary teacher behaviors have been specified to coordinate with each motivational principle. Some of the principles deal mainly with motivation related to learning of subject matter--for example, focusing on attention, goal setting, and providing informative feedback. Other principles--for example, modeling and reasoning--are directed more to student behavior in terms of self-reliance and self-control (Klausmeier, et al., 1976).

The IGM system was developed according to the model of instructional programming for the individual student in Individually Guided Education (IGE) (Klausmeier, Quilling, Sorenson, Way and Glasrud, 1971). The IGM model assumes that a child's level of motivation and rate of learning are closely related. Motivating a child must therefore be directly related to the instructional program and attainment of instructional objectives.

Figure 2 presents the major components of the motivational programming model. The model is based on: (1) a set of motivational principles derived from motivational theory and research; (2) statement of motivational objectives; (3) methods for assessing attainment of objectives and (4) a set of motivational-instructional procedures

TABLE 1

MOTIVATIONAL PRINCIPLES AND COROLLARY TEACHER BEHAVIORS

	Motivational Principle		Teacher Behavior
1.	Attending to a learning task is essential for initiating a learning sequence.	1.	Focus student attention on desired objectives.
2.	Setting and attaining goals require learning tasks at an appropriate difficulty level. Feelings of success with current learning tasks heighten motivation for subsequent tasks; feelings of failure lower motivation for subsequent tasks.	2.	Help each student set and attain goals related to the school's educational program.
3.	Acquiring information concerning correct or appropriate behaviors and correcting errors are associated with better performance on and more favorable attitudes toward the learning tasks.	3.	Provide feedback and correct errors.
4.	Observing and imitating a model facilitate the initial acquisition of many behaviors, including prosocial behaviors such as self-control, self-reliance, and persistence.	4.	Provide real-life and symbolic models.
5.	Verbalizing prosocial values and behaviors and reasoning about them provide a conceptual basis for the development of the behaviors.	5.	Provide for verbalization and discussion of prosocial values.
6.	Expecting to receive a reward for a specified behavior or achievement directs and sustains attention and effort toward manifesting the behavior or achievement. Nonreinforcement after a response tends to extinguish the response. Expecting to receive punishment for manifesting an undesired behavior may lead to suppression or avoidance of the behavior, or to avoidance and dislike of the punisher.	6.	Reinforce desired behaviors.

*(Taken from Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning Technical Report No. 355 by E. S. Ghatala who adapted it from Klausmeier & Goodwin, 1975, p. 232).

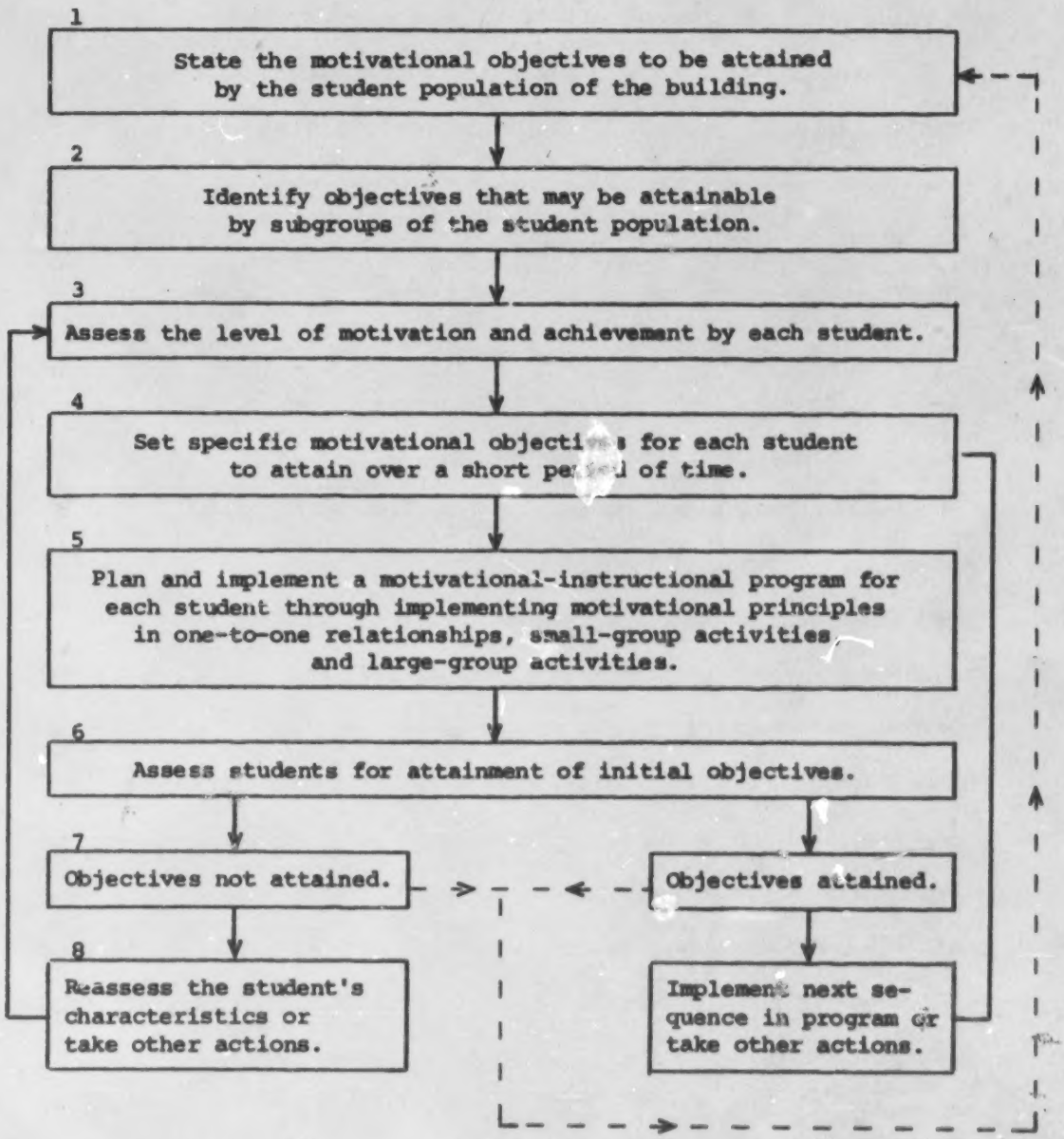

1
State the motivational objectives to be attained by the student population of the building.
2
Identify objectives that may be attainable by subgroups of the student population.
3
Assess the level of motivation and achievement by each student.
4
Set specific motivational objectives for each student to attain over a short period of time.
5
Plan and implement a motivational-instructional program for each student through implementing motivational principles in one-to-one relationships, small-group activities, and large-group activities.
6
Assess students for attainment of initial objectives.
7
Objectives not attained.
Objectives attained.
8
Reassess the student's characteristics or take other actions.
Implement next sequence in program or take other actions.

Figure 2. Model for the system of individually guided motivation (taken from Klausmeier, Jeter, Quilling, & Frayer, 1973).

in which the principles of motivation are incorporated.

In recent years a number of teacher educational materials consisting of texts, films and related printed materials have been developed to teach and implement the instructional-motivational procedures cited above. The four procedures include (1) adult-child conferences to encourage independent reading, (2) teacher-child conferences for goal setting, (3) guiding children toward self-directed prosocial behavior, and (4) guiding older children in tutoring younger children (Klausmeier, Jeter, Quilling, & Frayer, 1973).

These motivational-instructional procedures as based on the motivational principle (specified in Table 1) have been found to provide effective means for systematically applying these principles to accomplish explicit and significant motivational and academic objectives (Averhart, 1971; Frayer & Sorenson, 1971; Gaa, 1970; Kennedy, 1968; Marliave, 1971; Quilling, et al., 1971; Zajano & Hubbard, 1975).

Recognizing that parents affect the cognitive development of their children, a program devised so as to provide parents with the skills to maximize the potential abilities of their children has been that known as the "Systematic Training for Effective Parenting" (STEP) program (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976). A brief overview of this program follows.

Overview of STEP

The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) program is "an educational program for parents who want to raise responsible

children and to feel more adequate and satisfied as parents" (Dinkmeyer & MacKay, 1976). The STEP program has been developed over several years and has been subjected to intensive field testing (Dinkmeyer & MacKay, 1976). The authors of STEP have created this program based on the theories of Rudolf Dreikurs and research conducted at the Alfred Adler Institute of Chicago.

STEP is intended for study group utilization because the program's authors have found study groups to be an especially effective method for parent education. Designed to facilitate communication, parents are able to share common concerns regarding child rearing practices. Through these discussion groups, parents are provided the opportunity to become aware that their own reactions and attitudes may influence their children's unacceptable behaviors.

More specifically, STEP helps parents learn effective ways to relate to their children. By clarifying the purposes of children's behavior, this program teaches parents how to not reinforce children's unacceptable behaviors and how to encourage cooperative behavior.

Dinkmeyer and MacKay contend that the family is the most significant influence on the development of the individual (1976). Stating "values, attitudes and perceptions of life are influenced by the quality of our relationships with our parents" the authors suggest that most parents would profit from the type of experiences the STEP program offers (1976).

The objectives of the STEP program as described by Dinkmeyer and MacKay are as follows:

(1) To help parents understand a practical theory of human behavior and its implications for parent-child relationships.

(2) To help parents learn new procedures for establishing democratic relationships with their children.

(3) To help parents improve communication between themselves and their children so all concerned feel that they are being heard.

(4) To help parents develop skills of listening, resolving conflicts and exploring alternatives with their children.

(5) To help parents learn how to use encouragement and logical consequences to modify their children's self-defeating motives and behaviors.

(6) To help parents learn how to conduct family meetings.

(7) To help parents become aware of their own self-defeating patterns and faulty convictions which keep them from being effective parents who enjoy their children.

The STEP program offers a set of materials, such as a parent handbook, cassette tapes, charts and posters for seminar presentation and group discussions.

Literature Review Implications for Present Research

The reader may recall that in the exploratory study conducted

by the author that there were many and far reaching factors and conditions affecting cognitive development among school children. Studies have shown that in addition to children's levels of intelligence, their internal levels of motivation, self-esteem, academic attitudes, parental and teacher support all contribute to some extent, separately and in concert, to their learning and academic achievement (Mize & Klausmeier, 1976). The research studies reviewed here within this chapter further afford this notion strong support. It is also highly evident that many programs have been developed and implemented based on the philosophy of parental/teacher involvement as enhancing children's development.

It is the perception of the writer that society has done much to separate the educational instruction and parenting of today's youth. While many school systems purport to encompass home-school relation programs within their curriculum, it has often appeared to this writer to be only a form of lip service and that in fact school doors may swing open to most children but are in effect slammed shut on those same children's parents. Any tenured educator who has not lost his sensitivity to the individual uniqueness of each and every child is most assuredly cognizant of how poorly our present educational systems meet the needs of many children.

It was thought that surely amongst all the programs developed and implemented (some of which have been reviewed here within this chapter) that there are those that could be adapted, structured and

made available to parents so that they could provide a unified cooperative educational model between school and home for their children. It was thought that such a program could be developed, encompassing some of the "silver threads" of various programs reviewed here, so that significant strides could be made to involve parents in the educational process of their children and so enhance the cognitive development of those participants.

While it is clear that schools cannot successfully fill the role of the family, it is apparent that schools can help the family do its job effectively by acknowledging the importance of and improving the quality of parent-child-teacher interaction. "Bridging the gap between the family and the institution, therefore, becomes a top priority" (Bessent & Webb, 1976, p. 103).

In the next chapter a program devised to "bridge the gap" between families and schools so as to enhance the cognitive development of children is described. Subsequent chapters provide the resulting evidence of such an intervention program and the implications for the institutions of family and education in our society.

III

METHODOLOGY

This research effort was conducted so as to provide an intervention treatment program that would elicit increased parental involvement in their child's educational process. The major focus of this study was to assess the effect of this increased parental involvement. The intervention program was structured so as to follow a prescribed mode of parent-child activities and parent-teacher communications and activities all having reference to the child's educational experiences, particularly those involving reading.

SUBJECTS

Thirty-four children (and either one or both parents) from third and fourth grades (Unit C) of four elementary IGE schools in a small midwestern industrialized city public school system served as subjects in this study. Ten teachers, the respective school principals, counselors, and librarians also participated in this program.

Teachers selected children from their classrooms for this program based on the following question:

> Which children in your class do you feel would profit from a parent-teacher motivational program oriented toward enhancing that child's level of motivation, self-esteem,

academic attitudes, and reading achievement?

Parents of those children selected by teachers were then contacted both by letter and telephone by the school counselor and asked to participate in the described program (see Appendix A for parent letter). Written commitments were obtained from all cooperating parents and teachers of the selected children to participate in the program. Participation by all those involved in the program was completely voluntary including parents, children, teachers, counselors, librarians, and principals. Teachers identified 42 children from their classes for possible inclusion in the program. Of these 42 children, the parents of 36 children returned an agreement form indicating their desire to participate in the program. A total of 34 children's parents or parent actually participated in the parent/teacher program. Families participating in this research study represented a diversified social economic status (S.E.S.) background. Included were poverty level families supported by the State Welfare agency, labor employees, white collar workers and executive level professionals. However, it was observed that the majority of families in this research program were supported by blue collar employed family heads in this midwestern industrial city.

DESIGN

A pretest-posttest randomized two group design was employed. The randomization process was made by blocking on the subject variable of sex so as to ensure an equal number of boys in both the

experimental and control groups as well as an equal number of girls in both groups. Further care was exercised so as preclude siblings of the same family being in both groups, in other words, where selected children were from the same family (as it was in two cases) these children were placed in the same group, either experimental or control groups but not both.

Assignment	Pretest	Intervention	Posttest
Experimental Group (Random)	X	(with observation)	X
Control Group (Random)	X	- - -	X

Upon receipt of an ample number of commitments, children, their parents and teachers were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Those selected for the experimental group were asked to participate in a Spring 1977 intervention program. Those assigned to the control group served as such for the Spring 1977 program and will be offered the intervention program themselves in the Fall of 1977.

Random assignment of the 36 children whose parents indicated (by returning the signed agreement form) their willingness to participate in the program was made to experimental and control groups prior to the initiating of the program. 18 children were randomly assigned as experimentals and 18 were similiarly assigned as controls. Since only 34 parents actually participated in the program (the committed two had been assigned as experimental families) the final subject

distribution was 16 children in the experimental group to participate in the program and 18 children to serve as control subjects. Of the two who did not participate in the program, one family moved out of town and one family "changed their minds" and opted to not participate in the program.

PROCEDURES

The intervention strategy was to provide a treatment program package that would elicit increased parental involvement in their child's educational process. This intervention program implemented various resources of two separate systems integrated together so as to provide parents and teachers a unified approach to utilize with their children. These programs as described earlier (within the literature review chapter) were (1) The Individually Guided Motivation (IGM) System (Klausmeier, et al., 1975), and (2) The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) Program (Dinkmeyer & MacKay, 1976).

From the IGM System two types of instructional-motivational conference procedures were implemented during this intervention program. These procedures to be more fully described at this time were (1) Adult-Child Conferences to encourage independent reading and (2) Teacher-Child Conferences for goal setting.

Adult-Child Conferences to Encourage Independent Reading. This procedure was employed by the parents and children involved in the

intervention program. Designed to promote independent reading among children whose motivation is low such conferences have proved highly successful with children who previously read little or nothing beyond assigned classroom reading (Klausmeier, 1972). The objectives of these conferences were to encourage children to read more, to express more positive attitudes toward reading, and to develop associated skills. The procedure involved regularly scheduled conferences (usually requiring approximately 15 minutes) between an adult (in this study, the parent) and child. To attain these objective goals, the parent was instructed to model desirable reading behavior and attitudes, guide the child's choice of books, help them set goals for reading, provide feedback, and praise the child's efforts and accomplishments.

Teacher-Child Conferences for Goal Setting. This procedure had been employed by the participating teachers and children involved in intervention program prior to the initiation of this research endeavor. For the purposes of this study, this procedure as being practiced by the teachers and children was observed and documented so as to maintain equal implementation of the procedure by all involved during the intervention program.

The objectives of the goal setting conferences were "to increase the motivation of the student in a particular subject matter, to increase the self-direction of the student by teaching him to set realistic goals, and to bring about higher achievement in the subject

matter of the goal setting" (Klausmeier, et al., 1972, p. 83). To attain these objectives the teacher met with the child at regularly scheduled conference times usually requiring 5 to 10 minutes per conference. The teacher focused the student's attention on selected subject matter objectives, guiding him in setting weekly goals, providing feedback about the student's accomplishments and goal-setting accuracy, and praising the student's efforts, his attainment of goals, and his accuracy in setting goals.

Materials for instructing parents and teachers in the employment of these procedures included tests, films, and related printed materials. As part of the intervention program these materials were utilized during inservice training sessions designed to provide instruction regarding the implementation of IGM procedures.

These motivational-instructional procedures as based on motivational principles (specified in Table 1) have been found to provide effective means for systematically applying these principles to accomplish explicit and significant motivational and academic objectives (Averhart, 1971; Frayer & Sorenson, 1971; Gaa, 1970, Kennedy, 1968; Marliave, 1971; Quilling, et al., 1971; Zajano & Hubbard, 1975).

Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP). For the purposes of this intervention study, selected portions of the STEP program were integrated with the IGM materials to be presented to parents and teachers during the inservice training component of the

intervention program. Those aspects of the STEP program to be employed and their objectives will be briefly described at this time.

1. Understanding Children's Behavior and Misbehavior

   Objectives: Parents were to learn that their children's misbehavior serves the general purpose of assuring themselves that they have a place in the family. Parents were to learn how to identify such behavior and how they unintentionally reinforce their child's misbehavior.

2. Encouragement: Building Your Child's Confidence and Feelings of Self Worth

   Objectives: Parental understanding of the concept and process of encouragement. Also to help parents to differentiate between attitudes and behaviors that discourage and attitudes and behaviors which encourage children.

3. Communication: Listening and Expressing

   Objectives: Help parents to improve their listening skills with their children. Help parents to learn how to communicate to children that they understand the child's feelings.

4. Developing Responsibility

   Objectives: Designed to provide parents with a learning experience so as to gain cooperation from their children. How to encourage children's learning. How to develop child responsibility.

5. Developing Confidence

Objectives: Parents were to become more aware of their own assets as well as their children's assets. Parents were to describe their strengths and receive encouragement.

Intervention Program

The proposed program consisted of a seven-week activity intervention and three inservice training sessions spread out over the course of the seven weeks.

7-Week Intervention Program

Pretest	Parent-Child & Parent-Teacher Activities Encompassing Entire 7-Week Program			Posttest
Children, Parents, Teachers	Inservice Training Session	Inservice Training Session	Inservice Training Session	Children, Parents, Teachers
	Saturday (9-12 a.m.); Initiating Seven-Week Program	During Third Week	During Fifth Week	
		Evening Session	Evening Session	

The Seven Week Program. During the first inservice training session parents received instruction and guidance in how to conduct adult-child conferences to encourage independent reading and to apply the relevant motivational and communication principles specified in the IGM system and the STEP program. At the conclusion of this inservice training session parents were asked to commit and contract to meet with their child at home two a week for adult-child reading

conferences. These conferences which were to typically require 15 minutes each to conduct were employed for the duration of the seven weeks of intervention. These parent-child conferences were meant to offer the child a format to share with his parent(s) his thoughts, ideas, concerns, and accomplishments regarding his reading and related class activities.

In addition to the two specified parent-child conferences each week, parents were asked to commit and contract to spend some additional time each week with their child participating in a reading related activity. These activities were to be specified by the parent and child each week and needed only to utilize the reading related skills covered during the parent-child conferences. For example, the parent may have chosen to visit the child at school during a reading activity, or go to the library with the child, or read the directions of a cake mix recipe or model aircraft together, or read a book or magazine together, etc. The choice of such an activity was to be left totally up to the discretion of the parent and their child. These two weekly conferences and the related activities were designed to increase parental involvement with their child regarding the child's educational process.

So as to elicit greater cooperation and understanding of the various aspects of the intervention program parents completed a behavioral contract at the conclusion of each inservice training session. This behavioral contract specified the various aspects of

their involvement in the intervention program (see Appendix B).

During the seven weeks of intervention teachers were asked to commit and contract to meet with the child on a one-to-one basis at least twice a week for individual goal setting conferences. These conferences were designed as opportunities for the teacher to apply the motivational principles (i.e., focusing attention, setting goals, feedback, and reinforcement) developed through the inservice sessions component of the intervention program. During these conferences the teacher reviewed with the student related reading goals and various related behaviors which required improvement by the student. These behaviors were to be worked on by the student and would be evaluated each week by the teacher and student from cooperatively completing a "motivational behavior checklist" employed by the Janesville schools. This checklist was one which has been adapted by school personnel for utilization with children from a Checklist for Assessing General Levels of Motivation designed by Klausmeier and colleagues (1972). This adapted behavioral checklist (see Appendix C) was shared with the parent at the various inservice training sessions.

Like the parents, teachers too were asked to complete their own behavioral contract at the conclusion of each inservice training session. This behavioral contract specified the various aspects of their involvement in the intervention program (see Appendix D).

At the end of each of the seven weeks during the intervention

program (on Fridays), the teacher sent home to parents a "weekly progress report" (see Appendix E). This report was designed to share with the parents the various reading activities participated in by the youngster at school and was to give suggestions for the parent(s)-child reading activities at home. In addition to this report the teacher was to send home reading related materials for utilization by the parent for their parent-child reading conferences.

At the beginning of each week (Mondays) the parent sent to the teacher a report of their parent-child activities for the previous week (Appendix F). Both the parent and teacher "weekly progress reports" provided duplicate copies for the school counselor.

This weekly report exchange was meant to enhance home-school rapport. These reports were constructed in such a way as to provide a measure of parent-teacher-child behavior during the seven-week period of intervention. These forms were introduced to parents and teachers during the first inservice training session.

In order to elicit the child's understanding and cooperation of the intervention program, the school counselor met with each child prior to the implementation of the program to explain the various aspects of and his involvement in the program. The child then committed and contracted to participate in the parent-child reading conferences, teacher-child goal setting conferences, and to carry and deliver the weekly progress reports to be exchanged between his parents and teacher. (A child's contract form is presented in Appen-

dix G.)

The elementary counselor was available to all parents involved in the intervention program each week at a specified time to respond to any needs, questions, and concerns regarding inservice sessions, their child's progress, etc. The counselor was also available to all involved teachers in a similar manner. The counselor maintained a log of all contacts made with parents, teachers, and children during the duration of intervention.

The school librarian in each involved school was available to all parents, teachers, and children involved to assist in the selection of appropriate reading materials to be utilized by the child. A catalog of high interest level books was available for the various reading levels represented by the children in this program. Parents were invited to meet with the librarian to be shown the various reading materials in their child's school library.

Inservice Training for Parents and Teachers

Three inservice training sessions for parents and teachers were conducted. The first session was held on a Saturday morning just prior to the first week of intervention. The second and third sessions were evening sessions held during the third and fifth weeks of the intervention program. All inservice sessions were conducted by the elementary counselors and principals of the involved experimental schools.

1st Inservice Training Session (Saturday 9-12 a.m.). This introductory session was structured as follows:

I. Introduction (to all participants in a large group)

- Salutation
- Purposes of Session
- Overview

II. IGM Overview Lecture (to all participants in a large group)

- Basic Motivational Principles and Concepts
- IGM Overview Film and Overhead Projectives

III. Individual Goal Setting Conferences Procedures (IGM)

- Teachers Discussion Group and Film Viewing

Adult-Child Reading Conferences (IGM)

- Parents Discussion Group and Film Viewing

BREAK TIME

IV. Encouragement and Communication (STEP)

- Discussion Group

V. Instruction on scheduling conferences with child to commit and contract specifically until the next inservice session, tentatively for entire 7-week program.
Break down into parent-teacher dyads to share conference contract.

VI. Summary (all participants in a large group)

- Questions and Answers

This inservice training session consisted of multimodal presentations of the IGM and STEP programs specified. Small group discussion, lecture, roleplaying and modeling procedures were implemented by facilitating school personnel. The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting parents manual (Dinkmeyer & MacKay, 1976) was given to parents. The Guide for Adult-Child Reading Conferences manual (Jeter, et al., 1973) was also provided to both parents and teachers.

Terminal goal behavior by parents and teachers at this inservice session was specified by the formation of behavioral contracts to carry out the prescribed instructional-motivational procedure conference thus implementing the motivational principles and the communication and encouragement procedures provided them during the inservice. These contracts were implemented over the period of time that the intervention program was employed.

2nd Inservice Training Session (evening session during the third week of intervention). This session provided parents and teachers review instruction on the IGM conference procedures previously taught and implemented through this third week of intervention. Parents and teachers had the opportunity to share their perceptions concerning the program with each other.

Lecture presentation was provided covering the principles of children's behavior and misbehavior and child management procedures that develop child responsibility (STEP); a discussion on reinforcing

children's learning was presented at this session.

Lecture, discussion groups, role playing, and modeling procedures were again employed. Parents and teachers again conferred to affirm conference procedure scheduling and to complete new behavioral contracts for implemention over the next two weeks (until the third inservice session).

3rd Inservice Training Session (evening session during the fifth week of intervention). This inservice training session as originally proposed was designed to serve primarily as a discussion experience or rap session for parents and teachers; so that any concerns, suggestions and questions could be attended by all involved. Given the enthusiastic feedback and active involvement of parents and teachers during the first and second inservice training sessions, the facilitating staff made the decision to again provide the program participants further dydactic training regarding implementation of child management, interpersonal relationship skills and child motivational procedures. Parents were also given the opportunity to become aware of their own assets as well as their child's assets by utilizing the developing confidence STEP program objective #5.

The utilization of role playing activities involving both parents and teachers resolving real life-like child-adult problem situations dominated this inservice session. Discussion sessions were also held to address any problems and suggestions regarding implementation of the program by all those involved.

Again parents and teachers conferred to affirm instructional-motivational conference procedures and to contract to carry on these activities at least through the completion of the seven week intervention program.

School personnel were provided an honorarium for their participation in the research and inservice training activity aspects of this study conducted beyond their regular school hour schedule. This included experimental group teachers, counselors, and principals.

PROGRAM EVALUATION AND HYPOTHESES

This dissertation research endeavor sought to provide an intervention treatment program that would elicit parental involvement in their child's educational process. The major emphasis of this study was to assess the effect of the increased parental involvement.

This parental involvement program was evaluated in terms of any behavioral and attitudinal changes observed of the participating parents and teachers as well as by a number of child indices. Child variables that were assessed included the (1) child's level of self-esteem, (2) motivation to learn, (3) academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teacher, school, learning, and (4) reading achievement.

In order to evaluate the fidelity of the treatment program the following questions were posited:

1. Will an educational program of parental involvement increase the level of parent-teacher rapport?

2. Will an educational program of parental involvement increase parents' involvement in their child's educational process?

In order to evaluate the impact of the treatment program the following questions were posited:

3. Does this program designed to increase parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's educational process improve the parents' educational attitudes?
4. Does this program designed to increase parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement in their child's educational process enhance the child's:
   a. motivation to learn?
   b. self-esteem?
   c. academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teachers, school, and learning?
   d. reading achievement?

A hypothesis corresponding to each of these research questions can be stated in the null hypothesis format as follows:

1. There will be no significant differences between experimental and control groups in their levels of parent-teacher rapport.
2. There will be no significant differences between experimental and control groups in their levels of parental involvement in their child's educational process.

3. There will be no significant differences between experimental and control groups in parental educational attitudes.
4. There will be no significant relationship between a program of parent-teacher rapport, parental involvement in their child's educational process, and their child's motivation to learn, self esteem, academic attitudes and reading achievement.

DEPENDENT MEASURES AND ASSESSMENT

Several dependent variables were assessed in a pre-post design so as to evaluate the study hypotheses with the appropriate statistical analysis. These will now be briefly defined and referenced to the specific hypothesis involved.

Hypothesis #1 - Parent-Teacher Rapport

Parent-teacher rapport was measured by using a questionnaire developed by the author. (See Appendix H and I). Parent-teacher rapport is defined for purposes of this study as all forms of communication between a child's parent(s) and his teacher. The questionnaire was given both to parents and teachers to evaluate in a behavioral sense the specific amount and type of communication that occurred between parents and teachers on a pre-post treatment basis.

In addition to the pre-post questionnaire, parent-teacher rapport was monitored and recorded each week during the intervention

program via the weekly progress reports exchanged by the participating teachers and parents.

Hypothesis #2 - Parental Involvement

Parental involvement in their child's education process was measured on a pre-post treatment questionnaire (see Appendix J) for all parents and by observations made during the intervention program with those parents that participated in the program. Parental involvement is defined for purposes of this study as parental overt active participation with their child regarding some aspect of the child's school activities. The questionnaire involved items assessing specific behavioral activities participated in by the parent and child together. Additional behavior indices were made available through the weekly progress reports completed by the parents and shared with their child's teacher and counselor.

Hypothesis #3 - Parental Educational Attitude

Parental educational attitudes were assessed by administering the Educational Attitude Survey (Bear, Hess, and Shipman, 1966) on a pre-post treatment basis. This survey is a 27-item Likert-type scale in which parents answer items about their orientation toward education and the public school system. A factor analysis of the items yields six factor clusters as follows: (1) futility in dealing with school authorities, (2) conservatism in school practices, (3) improvement through formal education, (4) optimistic and positive

attitudes toward school, (5) defensiveness about inadequate formal education, and (6) negative attitude about public education.

The authors of this survey report statistical significance in the predicted direction between groups across all socio-economic sample groups. They further report that several factors on their scale are related to children's general work habits in scholastic tasks and to their cognitive skills. Intercorrelation among the items within factors range from .37 to .72. An author of this scale reports high test-retest reliability figures for this instrument (Hess, 1977).

Hypothesis #4 - Child Dependent Variables Affected by Intervention: Self-Esteem, Motivation to Learn, Academic Attitudes, and Reading

Self-Esteem. If one accepts the notion of self-esteem being the body of self-enhancing and derogatory beliefs, attitudes, and feelings that an individual holds toward himself, then we could state quite simply that an individual's self-esteem is reflective of how that person perceives and feels about himself. For the purposes of this study, the writer accepted this definition of self-esteem. Again, for purposes of this writing, the terms self, self-esteem, self-concept, and self-worth are all accepted in their broadest sense as being more or less synonymous and indicating that which has been previously described as how an individual perceives and feels about himself.

In order to assess self-esteem, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967) was administered to all children in the study on a pre-post test basis. This scale of 58 items, originally devised for use with children, measures evaluative attitudes toward the self in social, academic, family, and personal areas of experience. The items are easy for children to read as they are short statements answered in a "like me" or "unlike me" fashion by the respondent. Items are written in various child experiential areas such as peers, parents, school, and personal interests. Much research has been conducted by investigators of self-concept utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory. The writer utilized this inventory during the exploratory study and found it to be most satisfactory. In 1974 Coopersmith reported that over 40,000 children and adults had been administered the Self-Esteem Inventory in five years time. High reliability figures have been reported as follows: .90 (Taylor & Deits, 1972), .87 (Fullerton, 1972), and .88 (Coopersmith, 1967). Validating information concerning this inventory has been generally positive as indicated by most research studies reported. Five subscales comprise the total Self-Esteem Inventory and each scale can be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The four remaining subscales incorporated in this Self-Esteem Inventory are: (1) The General Self, (2) Social Self/Peers, (3) Home/Parents, and (4) School/Academic.

Motivation to Learn. Instruments and procedures for assessing motivation which are simple to administer and score and are as valid and reliable as those commonly used to measure ability simply do not exist (Frymier, 1970). After an extensive search for an assessment tool to measure children's levels of motivation to learn, the writer totally concurred with the above statement--until locating Frymier's Junior Index of Motivation (JIM). The JIM scale is an objective test which does not have the inherent disadvantages of self-report measures, projective techniques, or observer ratings or inferences made from production measures as are typically used by researchers to judge children's motivation levels. For purposes of this study the writer was not attempting to assess the general construct of "motivation" or even "academic motivation" but rather the specific aspect of a child's psychological process termed as "motivation to learn." The studies of Combs and Snygg (1959), Allport (1955), Maslow (1954), and Fromm (1941) all suggest that the structure and dynamics of human personality affect the individual's motivational stance toward learning.

Personal values are reflected by the degree of intensity one displays when pursuing a goal; thus values are often thought to be synonymous with motivation. Curiosity is considered to be perceptual energy exhibited by an individual as that person reacts to dissonant stimuli. Frymier (1970) contends that motivation to learn in school comes primarily from within the individual and is inte-

grated in a child's personality structure, value structure, and curiosity structure. In the development of the items to be included in his Motivation Index, these assumptions were employed.

The JIM Scale is an 80 item test in which only 50 items are scored according to a Likert-type response set. The scale has been developed over several years and has been subjected to intense field testing in order to attain optimal standardized qualities. Normed on samples in excess of 3000 subjects involving elementary through high school children (4th through 12th grades) of both sexes from all regions of the United States, studies report reliability figures for test-retest and split half conditions to be .70 and .83, respectively (Frymier, 1970). Validity studies utilizing other motivational scales and achievement score indices have yielded product moment correlation coefficients of .66 and .57. Mean scores, standard deviations, and standard error values are available by grade, sex, and school location.

Since this scale is an objective test versus a self report measure, it disguises its intent to the respondent, and therefore, offers greater control over socially-desired biased responses.

For the purposes of this research effort, the JIM Scale was determined to contain many items which were considered to be beyond the conceptual abilities of the young children involved in this study. Additional items incorporated vocabulary that were considered too advanced for third and fourth grade children. Despite the

norming procedures reported by Frymier which utilized fourth grade children through high school students, the scale was considered too long for employment with the subjects in this proposed study. Therefore the following procedures were conducted to revise the original JIM Scale so as to be suitable for this research effort. First, all filler (30 non-scored) items were omitted. Ten additional items evaluated to be conceptually too advanced and not subject to rewriting were omitted. The forty remaining items (40 of the original 50 scored items) were then evaluated in terms of their readability by third and fourth grade youngsters. This procedure involved subjecting each item to the readability criterion established by Dale and Chall (1948). Their "formula for predicting readability" is widely recognized and utilized as appropriate for such test item construction. So as to maintain the content of the original JIM Scale items this writer sought to alter the items only so far as to make them readable by the children involved in the study. This language change deemed to be minor was determined superior to the alternative of developing entirely new items to evaluate children's motivation to learn. The final revised scale with 40 items was then presented to third grade teachers and an experienced elementary reading specialist for their evaluation of its readability and understanding by third and fourth grade children. The author also administered the revised scale to a small number of similar aged children and observed no difficulty among these children in their efforts to read,

comprehend, and respond to the items.

After further minor changes as suggested by the evaluating teachers and reading specialist the revised scale was considered to be satisfactory for the purposes of this study. This revised scale can be observed in Appendix K.

An additional measure of the child's level of motivation was solicited via a pre-post administration to teachers of a "Checklist for Assessing General Levels of Motivation" (see Appendix C). This checklist which has been employed by the Janesville school personnel for teacher-child goal setting procedures has been adapted by the school staff from a similar checklist developed by Klausmeier, et al. (1972). Teachers completed this checklist pre and post treatment as well as bi-weekly during the intervention so as to evaluate the motivational changes observed among students involved in the intervention program. Teachers and children involved in this study had been utilizing this checklist procedure prior to this intervention program in their weekly goal setting conferences. For purposes of this study this checklist procedure was monitored and documented so as to insure equal implementation among all teachers and children involved. An additional pre-post treatment checklist evaluation was completed by the teachers to serve solely for the purposes of this study -- that is to evaluate the effect of a program of increased parental involvement in their child's educational process as reflected in the child's motivation to learn.

Academic Attitude. A collection of related measuring instruments devoted solely to affective aspects of school-aged subjects has been developed by the Instructional Objectives Exchange (IOX) of Los Angeles, California. This measurement device was utilized by the writer in the exploratory study and found to be quite satisfactory for such purposes.

The IOX Attitude Toward School (1972) direct self-report instrument was designed to solicit the child's affective attitude in a straight-forward direct question/answer method. This type of measure possesses high content validity, and for the individual child who truthfully responds such a measure indicates positive or negative attitude (depending on the instrument item) toward school. While the IOX provides assessment concerning the subject's perceived attitudes toward his school experiences in general, various subscales reflecting a number of dimensions of the learner's attitude are quantified for scoring purposes. Six dimensions on this scale are observed. They are described by IOX as follows: (1) Teachers - The child's subjective feeling about teacher behavior with respect to mode of instruction, authority and control, and the interpersonal relationship of teacher to pupils, (2) School Subjects - The child's attitude toward the learning experience, independent of attitudes toward school, teachers, and subjects, as reflected in intellectual curiosity, willingness to study, voluntarism, interest in problem solving, etc., (4) Social Structure and Climate - The child's atti-

tude toward his school as a social center, a rule-making and rule-envorcing entity, and an extracurricular opportunity system (5) Peer - The child's feelings regarding the structure of and climate of relationships within the child's peer group, and (6) General - The child's general orientation toward schooling, independent of a particular school.

In addition to the IOX Scale, it was deemed necessary by the writer to assess children's attitudes with a behavior orientation. Also of concern is the child's attitude toward the specific activity being stressed during intervention--that being reading. Consequently, the Wisconsin Reading Attitude Inventory by Dulin and Chester (1975) of the University of Wisconsin in Madison was selected for administration to the children involved in this study. The authors of this instrument report that their inventory taps a child's reading attitude by asking behaviorally directed questions. Sample items are:

> Which would you rather do -- read a book or listen to the radio?; read a book or take a nap?; read a book or shine your shoes?

Developed after several years of conducting research assessing children's attitudes toward reading, Dulin and Chester have created a 20-item inventory responded to in a Likert-type format and integrated their questionnaire with a reading attitudinal survey that has been published as the Estes Attitude Scale. Reliability of these scales

is reported as "substantial and impressive; content, factoral, convergent, and divergent validity are present" (Summers, 1976, p. 12).

Reading Achievement. For purposes of pre-post assessments of reading achievement, the Metropolitan Achievement Test for Reading by Harcourt Brace and Jovanovich (1970) was selected to be utilized in this study. A nationally utilized assessment normed on several hundred thousand children, this instrument reports reliability figures for its reading subtests of .92 and .93. The publisher offers parallel forms of the reading test which contain 45 items, are administered in 25 minutes, and provide grade equivalency, percentile ranking, and stanine norms. Familiar to the writer, the Metropolitan was deemed to satisfy the needs of this study in a most satisfactory manner. Form F was used for pretest purposes and form G was utilized during the administration of the posttest.

Testing and Interview Procedures

Parents of both the control and experimental groups were interviewed in the child's home. Interviews were short (approximately 30 minutes) and simply involved a question/answer format regarding the questions asked on the parent-teacher rapport questionnaire, the parent involvement questionnaire, and the attitudinal survey. Either one or both parents of the control group were interviewed; however, it was required that the parent involved in the pretest would also participate in the posttest. Either one or both parents of the experimental group were interviewed and participated in the inter-

vention program; however, again, parental consistency over pre-post and intervention was adhered to.

All children of both the control and experimental groups were administered all psychometric assessments in small groups settings by the writer of this research study. Inasmuch as the subjects for this study represent four different schools and several different classrooms, teachers in each building were requested to make available all the children in their room involved in this study for testing purposes at an agreed upon morning time so as to expedite the pre- and posttest procedures. All questionnaires and surveys, with the exception of the reading achievement test (Metropolitan), were read out loud by the examiner as the children were instructed to read the various items silently. This procedure was followed uniformly with all subjects so as to accommodate the various reading levels and abilities of the involved children and to maximize the understanding of the materials by each child. Subjects received the various psychometric indices over a two-day period one session per day, with each session requiring less than one hour of time. The order of test administration for all children was as follows.

First Day

Self-Esteem Inventory - requires approximately 20 minutes

Motivation to Learn Scale - requires approximately 20 minutes

Second Day

Attitude Toward School Inventory - requires approximately 20 minutes

Attitude Toward Reading Scale - requires approximately 10 minutes

Reading Achievement Test - requires 25 minutes

Time limits and procedural requirements for each administration were carefully and consistently observed. Children were seen in their schools under the appropriate conditions required by psychological data collection.

All participating teachers were interviewed pre- and post-intervention for purposes of administering the parent-teacher rapport, questionaire and completion of the checklist for assessing children's general level of motivation. These forms, required approximately 20 minutes of the teacher's time, and were completed at the school during a time convenient for the teacher (i.e., lunch break or after class dismissal).

At the conclusion of all posttesting, parents of the experimental group were interviewed for the purpose of receiving feedback from them regarding their individual perceptions of the intervention program. Such issues as which aspects of the inservice training sessions, child activities, and various components of the program they deemed as worthwhile or effective was thought to provide very rich and valuable data which could have implications for later research efforts.

ANALYSIS

All hypotheses (#1 through #4) were statistically evaluated by employing T-Test analysis on posttest mean scores to compare experi-

mental and control groups. As originally proposed, pretest scores were observed so as to evaluate whether the within group variance was larger than desirable, thus requiring an analysis of covariance utilizing the pretest scores as a covariate. However, after examination of pretest scores and T-Test analysis of pretest mean scores it was deemed that the experimental and control groups were of the similar population from which they had been randomly selected and that both groups were functioning at similar levels on all dependent measures prior to treatment. Therefore, it was deemed that by employing T-Test analysis on posttest group means so as to compare experimental and control groups the investigator would maximally satisfy the inherent empirical requirements of hypothesis testing as utilized in this research study.

IV

RESULTS

In order to assess the effect of a program designed to increase parental involvement in the educational process of their child, 34 complete data sets were collected for pre- and posttest treatment analysis during this research study. All children (16 experimental subjects and 18 control subjects) were evaluated on the following dependent measures: (a) self-esteem, (b) motivation to learn, (c) academic attitudes, (d) reading attitudes, (e) reading achievement. The educational attitudes of the parents of these 34 children were also solicited to further assess the impact of the treatment program. So as to evaluate the fidelity of the intervention program, parent-teacher rapport and parental involvement were observed and measured before, during, and after the treatment program.

All of the above-mentioned dependent measures were subjected to empirical evaluation by employing T-Test analyses on pretest group means to compare experimental and control groups prior to treatment and again on posttest group means, once again comparing the treatment group versus the nontreatment group after the intervention program was completed.

In addition to the dependent measure analyses, interviews were conducted between the investigator and all parents, teachers, coun-

selors, and principals involved in this intervention program regardless of their experimental or control status with respect to this study. These interviews were conducted so as to obtain the assessment of parental educational attitudes, teacher's rapport with the home, parent's rapport with the school, and school personnel's perceptions of the intervention program. At the conclusion of all posttesting, experimental parents were interviewed so as to solicit their experiential feedback, impressions, and suggestions concerning their participation in the intervention program. Anecdotal reports of all interviews as well as all conducted empirical analyses are presented within this chapter. The data as reported here were key-punched, computer scored and analyzed entirely by Wisconsin Research and Development Center personnel who are employed as computer programming specialists for such research projects. After the computer scoring procedures were completed, an accuracy check was conducted by the writer. This hand-scoring procedure as performed on several dependent measures evidenced the complete accuracy of the computer procedures.

Pretest raw score means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons on all dependent measures are reported in Table 2. Separate analyses were conducted on each question on the Parent-Teacher Rapport Questionnaire and Parent Involvement Questionnaire. The reader may refer to the respective appendix for each of these investigator-developed questionnaires (Appendix H for Parent-Teacher Rapport and Appendix J for Parent Involvement). All other additional measures are reported in terms of total scale or instrument raw scores. An

TABLE 2

PRETEST RAW SCORE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS ON ALL DEPENDENT MEASURES

Assessment Measure	Experimental Group (N = 16)	Control Group (N = 18)	T_{32}
Parent-Teacher Rapport (A)			
Question #1	1.937 (.772)	1.944 (.639)	-.0285
Question #2	.813 (.544)	.889 (.324)	-.5042
Question #3	.750 (1.064)	.333 (.970)	1.1954
Question #4	1.000 (.364)	.944 (.236)	.5343
Question #5	1.875 (.544)	.000 (.000)	1.4657
Question #6	.000 (.000)	.333 (.686)	-1.9383
Parent Involvement (B)			
Question #1	.500 (1.095)	.444 (1.338)	.1324
Question #2	6.000 (15.599)	11.666 (37.298)	-.5645
Question #3	2.000 (1.549)	1.722 (2.136)	.4391
Question #4	47.813 (57.357)	48.333 (71.042)	-.0233
Question #5	.250 (.447)	.166 (.383)	.5900
Parent Educational Attitudes	85.687 (8.252)	86.167 (7.830)	1.2780
Child's Self-Esteem	29.500 (3.777)	29.333 (5.891)	.0969
Child's Motivation to Learn	21.786 (3.807)	20.944 (4.880)	.4904
Child's Motivation Assessment by Teacher	37.375 (7.675)	37.444 (9.363)	-.0233
Child's Academic Attitudes	49.437 (8.082)	50.500 (8.699)	-.3676
Child's Reading Attitude			
Behavioral	45.438 (11.678)	47.611 (13.895)	-.4902
Attitudinal	61.750 (6.115)	61.222 (15.210)	.1296
Child's Reading Achievement	15.563 (3.385)	16.667 (6.936)	-.5778

$p < .05 = 2.038$ (T_{32})

(A): See Appendix H for questionnaire.
(B): See Appendix J for questionnaire.

TABLE 3

POSTTEST RAW SCORE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS ON ALL DEPENDENT MEASURES

Assessment Measure	Experimental Group (N = 16)	Control Group (N = 18)	T_{32}
Parent-Teacher Rapport (A)			
Question #1	5.563 (1.153)	2.167 (.857)	9.8167**
Question #2	3.688 (1.014)	.278 (.574)	12.2410**
Question #3	1.688 (2.056)	.111 (.323)	3.2140**
Question #4	7.250 (.775)	1.667 (.383)	34.3940**
Question #5	12.000 (6.077)	.778 (1.396)	7.6250**
Question #6	3.750 (2.436)	1.167 (1.689)	3.6268**
Parent-Involvement (B)			
Question #1	6.375 (2.604)	2.220 (.732)	6.4981**
Question #2	188.437 (115.768)	5.833 (21.299)	6.5801**
Question #3	3.750 (3.022)	.722 (1.127)	3.9585**
Question #4	130.937 (72.462)	27.500 (54.617)	4.7328**
Question #5	1.062 (1.181)	.111 (.323)	3.2886**
Parental Educational Attitudes	100.313 (9.470)	77.556 (9.407)	7.0185**
Child's Self-Esteem	38.625 (4.318)	28.000 (5.087)	6.5210**
Child's Motivation to Learn	28.438 (2.607)	20.833 (4.342)	6.0919**
Child's Motivation Assessment by Teacher	47.562 (4.732)	35.333 (8.478)	5.1017**
Child's Academic Attitudes	58.250 (7.353)	46.389 (7.330)	4.7041**
Child's Reading Attitudes			
Behavioral	70.500 (13.366)	48.167 (9.623)	5.6500**
Attitudinal	81.250 (8.683)	62.888 (8.864)	6.0880**
Child's Reading Achievement	25.062 (3.750)	17.667 (6.352)	4.0680**

**$p < .01 = 2.451$ (T_{32})

(A): See Appendix H for questionnaire.
(B): See Appendix J for questionnaire.

examination of Table 2 reveals that no significant differences existed between experimental and control groups on all dependent measures at the time pretests were administered. It was observed that the experimental and control groups were of the similar population from which they had been randomly drawn and that both groups were functioning at similar levels on all dependent measures prior to treatment. Consequently no further pretest analyses were considered necessary.

In order to facilitate the reader's comparison of post-treatment data results with these pre-treatment summary mean scores and analyses provided in Table 2, the posttest raw score means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons on all dependent measures are reported in Table 3. All measures are presented in similar fashion in both tables. Upon examination of Table 3 it can be observed that the T-Test analyses evidence significant differences between experimental and control groups on virtually all dependent measures. The significance level adopted for all tests was .01 ($t_{32} = 2.451$). The reader may recall that the Parent-Teacher Rapport Questionnaire inclusive of the six separate questions and analyses as reported in Table 3 as well as the Parent Involvement Questionnaire inclusive of five separate questions and analyses also as reported in Table 3 were assessed so as to evaluate the fidelity of the intervention program. Examination of these measures suggests that experimental parents did exhibit significantly greater rapport with their child's teacher during the treatment program period than did the parents of the control children. Experimental parents also exhibited greater

involvement in their child's educational process (as measured by the Educational Involvement Questionnaire) during the treatment program than did parents of control children.

Analyses of the remaining measures as reported in Table 3 (parent educational attitudes and child dependent indices) were all completed so as to evaluate the impact of the treatment program. The results of the analyses presented in Table 3 suggest significant differences existed between those children and whose parents participated in the intervention program versus those children and parents who served as controls. Let us now examine each dependent variable separately so as to evaluate the inherent hypotheses of this research endeavor.

PARENT-TEACHER RAPPORT

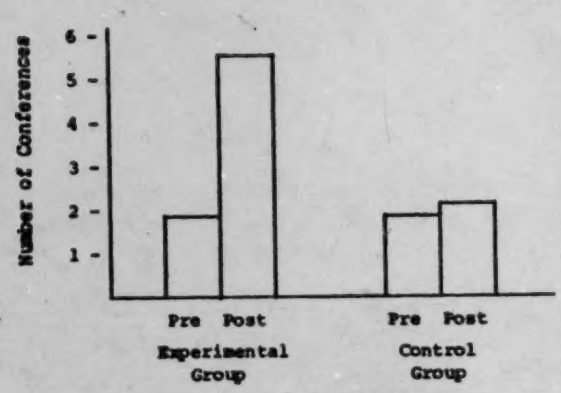
Posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups on the Parent-Teacher Rapport Questionnaire are presented in Table 4. Experimental parents and teachers held significantly greater numbers of conferences during the past two months (at time of posttesting) as well as over the course of the academic year than the control parents and teachers during the same time period. Experimental parents had a significantly greater number of contacts (visits, phone calls, letters, etc.) with their child's school principal or guidance counselor than did the control parents during the past two months (at time of posttesting). Experimental parents received at home a highly significant greater number of academic progress reports regarding their child (an average of 7.25 reports over two months) than did control parents (who

TABLE 4

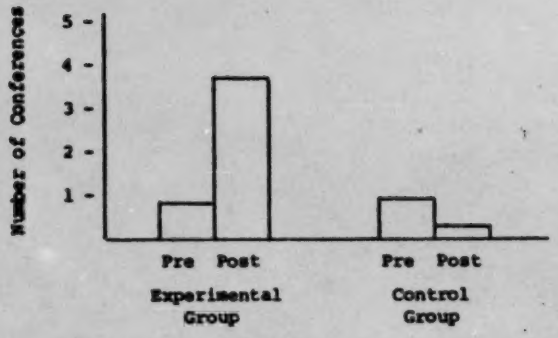
POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE PARENT-TEACHER RAPPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

Parent-Teacher Rapport Assessment Items	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Number of Parent-Teacher Conferences During Past Year	5.563 (1.153)	2.167 (.857)	9.8167**
Number of Parent-Teacher Conferences During Past Two Months	3.688 (1.014)	.278 (.574)	12.2410**
Number of Parent Contacts With Principal/Guidance Counselor During Past Two Months	1.688 (2.056)	.111 (.323)	3.2140**
Number of Academic Progress Reports Sent Home During Past Two Months	7.250 (.775)	1.667 (.383)	34.3940**
Number of Times Teacher Sent Reading Materials Home for Parent-Child Utilization During Past Two Months	12.000 (6.077)	.778 (1.396)	7.6250**
Number of Home-School Communications Other Than Conferences During Past Two Months	3.750 (2.436)	1.167 (1.689)	3.6268**

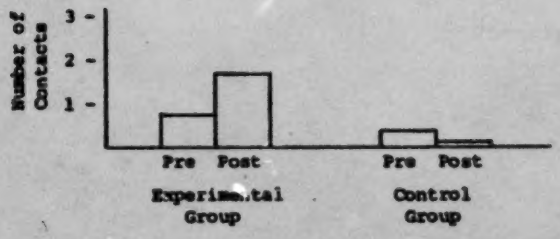
**$p < .01$



A. Mean number of parent-teacher conferences during past year.

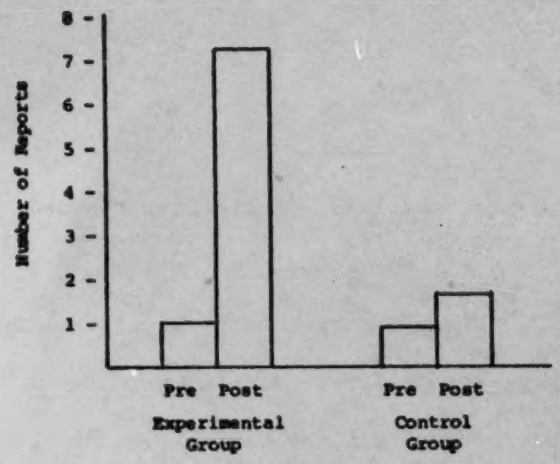


B. Mean number of parent-teacher conferences during past two months.

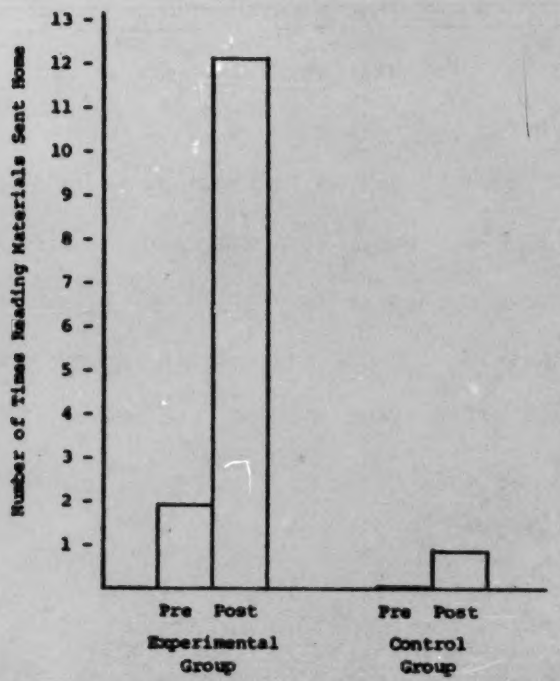


C. Mean number of parent contacts with principal or guidance counselor during past two months.

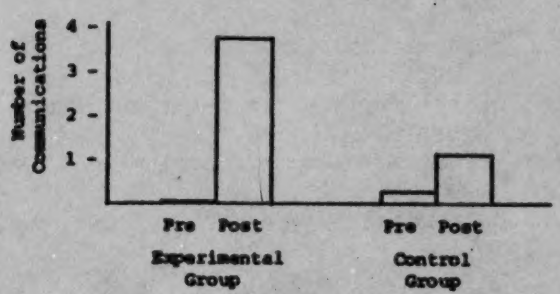
Figure 3. Parent-Teacher Rapport--Posttest Questionnaire



D. Mean number of academic progress reports sent home during past two months.



E. Mean number of times that teacher sent reading materials home for parent-child utilization.



F. Mean number of home-school communications other than conferences.

Figure 3 (cont.). Parent-Teacher Rapport--Posttest Questionnaire

received an average of 1.67 reports over the same two months). Experimental parents received from their child's teacher reading materials (12.0 times over 2 months) significantly more often to utilize with their child than did the parents of the control children (who received reading materials .778 times over the same two months from their child's teacher). Experimental parents had significantly more communication with their child's teacher (phone calls, visits, meetings, letters, etc.) than did control parents with their child's teacher.

Figure 3 (a-f) graphically presents the similar levels of parent-teacher rapport prior to treatment as exhibited by experimental and control parents as well as the significant behavioral differences between the groups regarding parent-teacher rapport at the conclusion of the intervention program.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

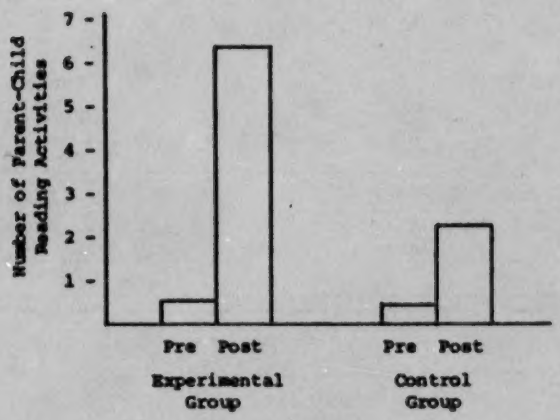
Posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups on the Parent Involvement Questionnaire are presented in Table 5. Upon examination of Table 5 it can be observed that experimental parents were involved in their child's educational process (as measured by this questionnaire) at a significantly greater level than were the control parents with their children. Experimental parents worked at home with their children on reading lessons three times more often (approximately

TABLE 5

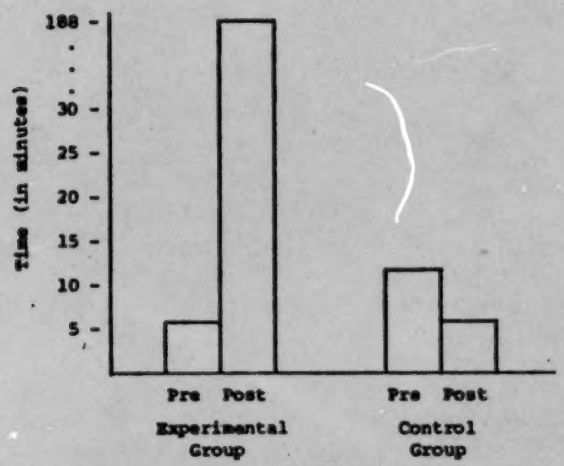
POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE PARENT INVOLVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Parental Involvement Assessment Items	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Number of Times Parent Worked With Child on Reading Lessons During The Past Two Weeks	6.375 (2.604)	2.220 (.732)	6.4981**
Amount of Time (in Minutes) Parent Worked With Child on Reading Lessons During Past Two Weeks	188.437 (115.768)	5.833 (21.299)	6.5801**
Number of Times Parent Worked With Child on Learning Activities Other Than Reading During Past Two Weeks	3.750 (3.022)	.722 (1.127)	3.9585**
Amount of Time (in Minutes) Parent Worked With Child on Learning Activities Other Than Reading During Past Two Weeks	130.937 (72.462)	27.500 (54.617)	4.7328**
Number of Times Parent Visited Child at School During Past Month	1.062 (1.181)	.111 (.323)	3.2866**

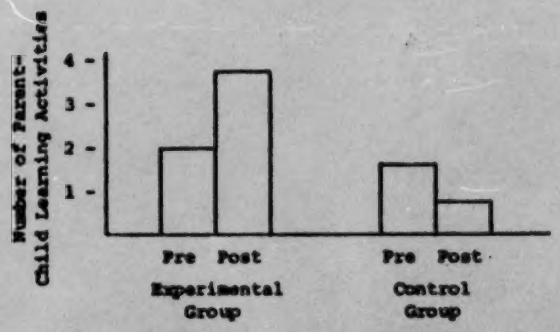
**$p < .01$



A. Mean number of times parent worked with child on reading lessons during past two weeks.

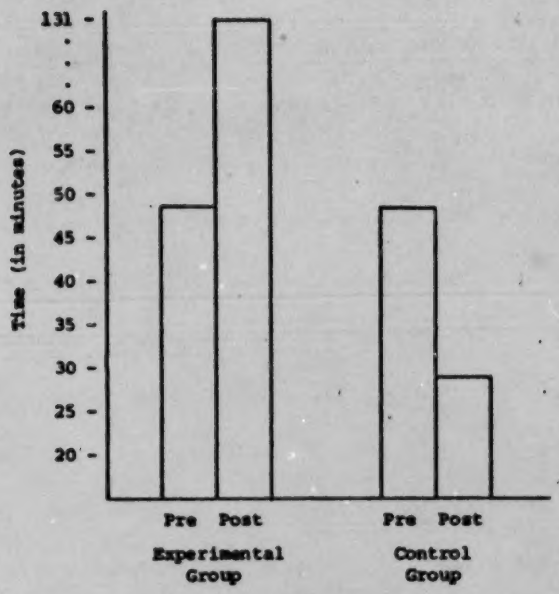


B. Mean amount of time (in minutes) parent worked with child on reading lessons during past two weeks.

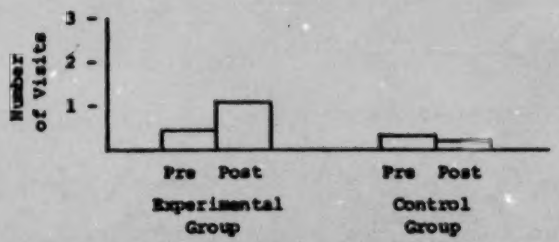


C. Mean number of times parent worked with child on learning activities other than reading during past two weeks.

Figure 4. Parent Involvement--Posttest Questionnaire



D. Mean amount of time (in minutes) that parent worked with child on learning activities other than reading during past two weeks.



E. Mean number of times parent visited child at school during past month.

Figure 4 (cont.). Parent Involvement--Posttest Questionnaire

6 to 2 over two weeks) than did control parents with their children. Experimental parents (considered as a group) spent an average of in excess of three hours over a two week period on reading activities with their child. In comparison, control parents spent less than six minutes over the same time period with their child. Experimental children and their parent(s) (as a group) met approximately four times for more than two hours in two weeks time participating in learning activities other (in addition to) than the reading activities reported above. Control children and their parents (as a group) met fewer than once for less than a half an hour in the same two weeks to participate in learning experiences other than reading activities. Experimental parents visited their child at school significantly more often than control parents visited their youngster in the classroom.

Figure 4 (a-e) graphically presents the similar levels of parent involvement in educational activities of their children prior to treatment as exhibited by experimental and control parents as well as the significant behavioral differences between the groups regarding parent involvement at the conclusion of the intervention program.

PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES

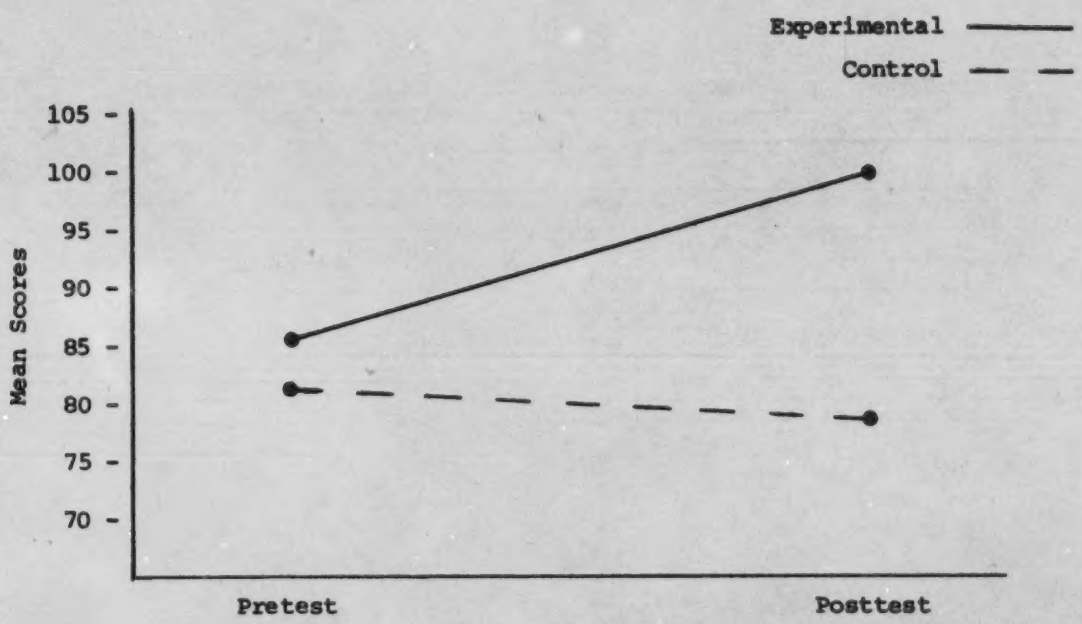
Posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups in the Parental Educational Attitude Survey (Bear, Hess, & Shipman, 1966) are reported in

TABLE 6

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDE SURVEY

Assessment	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Parental Educational Attitude Survey	100.313	77.556	7.0185**
	(9.470)	(9.407)	

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 7.0185$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 5. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the Parental Educational Attitude Survey.

Table 6. It can be observed that after experiencing the treatment program experimental parents expressed significantly more positive attitudes toward education and the schools than did control parents (t_{32} = 7.0185 exceeds .01 level of significance). As illustrated in Figure 5, experimental and control parents expressed similar attitudes prior to the intervention program, whereas the attitudes of these program participants (experimental parents) improved greatly while nonparticipants (control parents) maintained their more negative attitudinal stance towards education and their child's school system.

CHILDREN'S SELF-ESTEEM

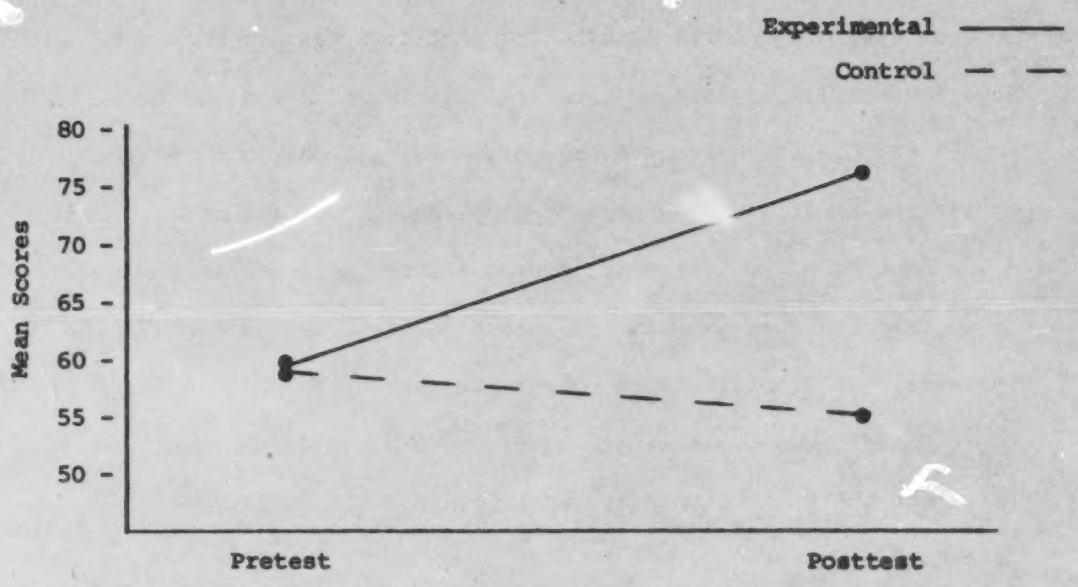
Table 7 presents posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967) and its respective subscales. Significant differences between experimental and control groups are shown on the four subscales--general self; social self with peers; self with respect to home and parents; self with regard to school. Figure 6 illustrates the experimental group mean score increased after experiencing the intervention program as compared with their pretest scores and those of the control group on both pre- and posttest measures. A t_{32} = 6.5210 as assessed when comparing experimental and control group mean score results on this instrument at posttesting exceeds the .01 level of significance.

TABLE 7

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Assessment Subscales	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
General Self	20.312 (2.056)	14.500 (3.185)	6.2306**
Social Self/Peers	6.437 (1.208)	5.222 (1.113)	3.0520**
Home/Parents	6.125 (1.360)	4.388 (1.577)	3.4170**
School/Academic	5.750 (1.571)	3.889 (1.451)	3.5906**
Total Scale	38.625 (4.318)	28.000 (5.087)	6.5210**

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 6.521$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$. (Note: Raw scores have been converted to a 100-point scaled score.)

Figure 6. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (total scale).

According to Coopersmith (1967), the pretest scores of both the experimental (59.00) and control (58.60) groups as well as the posttest score of the control group (56.00) all fall within a range considered as "low self-esteem." Coopersmith (1976) reports standard deviations on this instrument to approximate 11-13 points thus indicating that the experimental group posttest mean score (77.25) is nearly two standard deviations above that of its counterparts--the control group posttest mean score. Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile of this 100 point scale as indicative of high esteem.

CHILDREN'S MOTIVATION TO LEARN

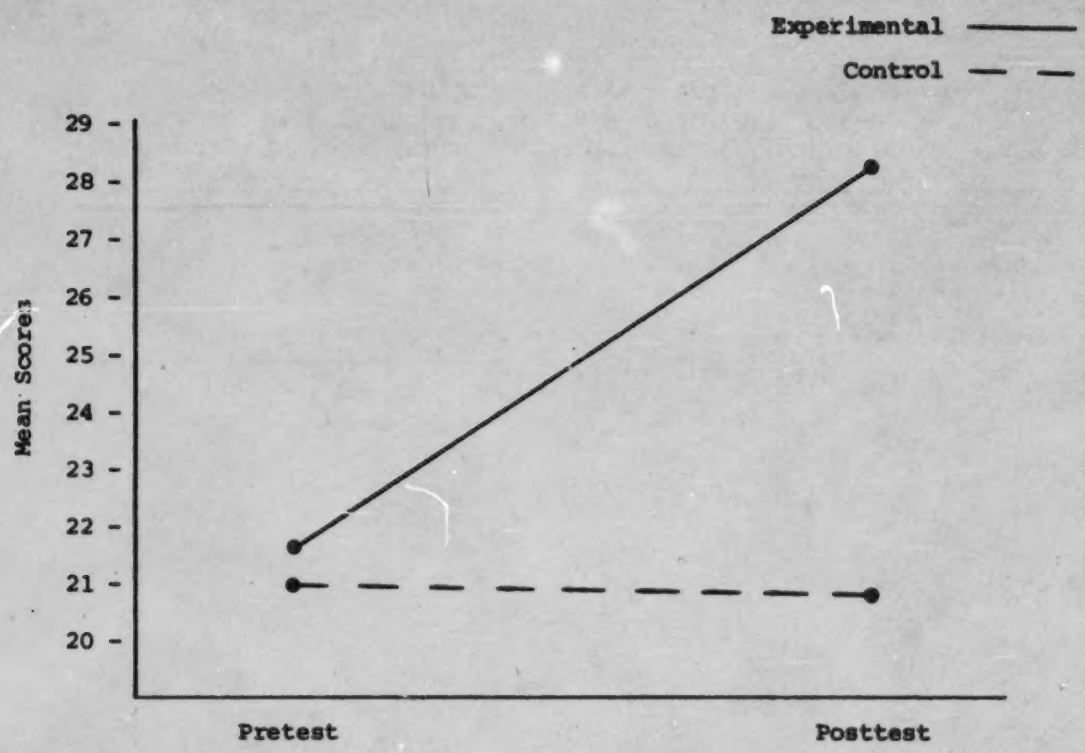
The children's motivation to learn was assessed by the Junior Index of Motivation (Frymier, 1970) as modified by this investigator for the purposes of this study (see Appendix K for scale). The posttest group mean scores, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between the experimental and control groups as based on the results obtained on this scale are reported in Table 8. Examination of this table evidences that the t value of 6.0919 as representative of the statistical difference between posttest group mean scores is significant at the .01 level. Figure 7 illustrates the significantly increased level of motivation to learn by the experimental group as compared with the control group as evidenced by their pre- and posttest mean scores on this instrument.

TABLE 8

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON A MODIFIED VERSION OF THE JUNIOR INDEX OF MOTIVATION

Assessment	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Modified Version of the Junior Index of Motivation	28.438 (2.606)	20.833 (4.341)	6.0919**

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 6.0919$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 7. Pretest and posttest mean scores on a modified version of the Junior Index of Motivation.

TEACHER'S EVALUATION OF CHILDREN'S MOTIVATION

Teachers evaluated the children's levels of motivation by utilizing a motivational behavior checklist (Klausmeier, Jeter, Quilling, Frayer, & Allen, 1975) rating twenty various behaviors exhibited by the children. The rating scale of 1 to 3 points (1 = seldom exhibited, 2 = sometimes exhibited, 3 = usually exhibited) was totaled to yield a sum score assessing the child's level of motivation. The posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between the experimental and control groups on this scale are reported in Table 9. As can be observed in Table 9, teachers evaluated the experimental children as significantly more highly motivated to learn than they evaluated the control children on the same measure. As illustrated in Figure 8, teachers evaluated both the experimental and control children's levels of motivation as virtually identical prior to intervention, while the same teachers evaluated the experimental children as significantly (t_{32} = 5.1017 exceeds .01 level of significance) more highly motivated to learn as compared with the control children after treatment.

CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC ATTITUDES

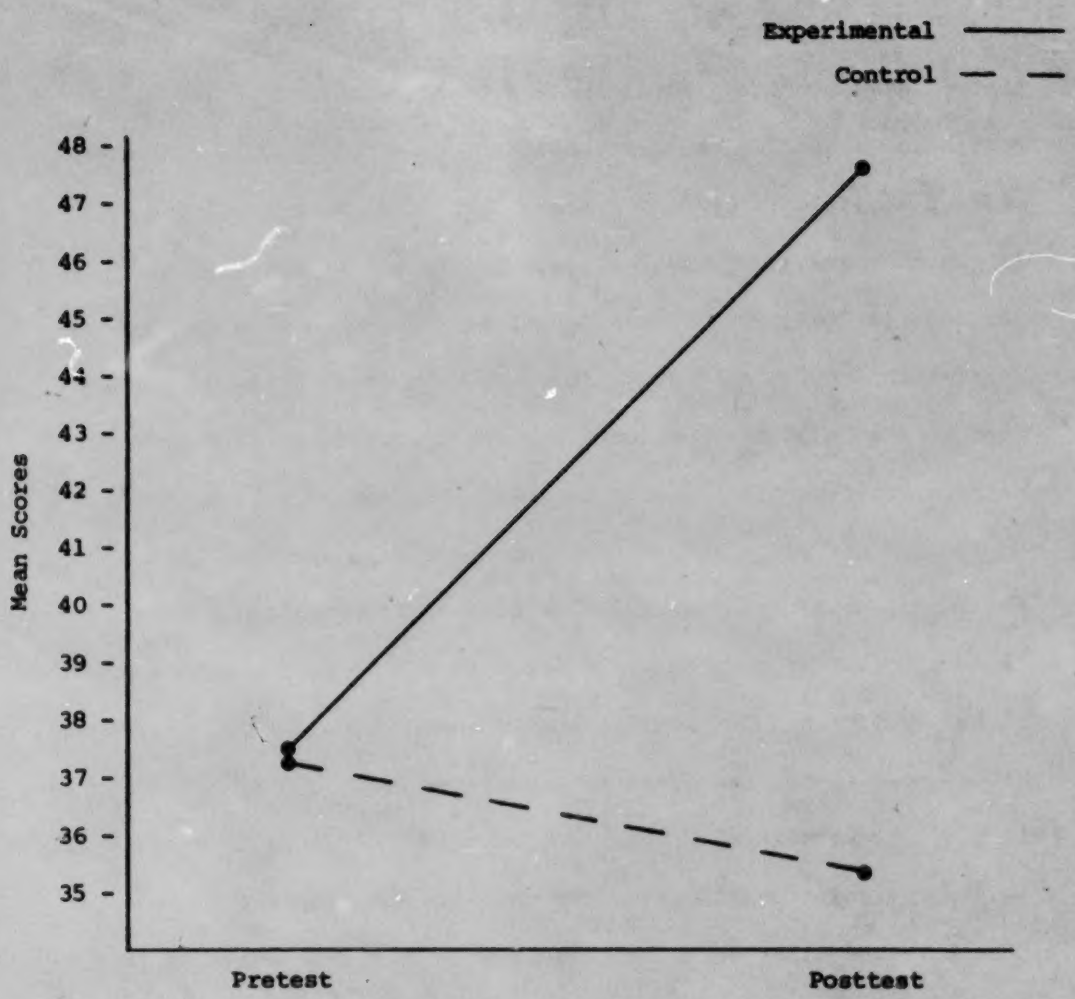
Children's academic attitudes were assessed by the School Sentiment Index (Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972). This instrument contains several subscales to assess the various facets of children's academic attitudes. The posttest group means, standard

TABLE 9

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON A TEACHERS' MOTIVATION CHECKLIST ASSESSMENT OF THE CHILD'S MOTIVATION TO LEARN

Assessment	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Motivation Checklist	47.562	35.333	5.1017**
	(4.732)	(8.478)	

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score differences between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 5.1017$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 8. Pretest and posttest mean scores on a Teacher's Motivation Checklist Assessment of the child's motivation to learn.

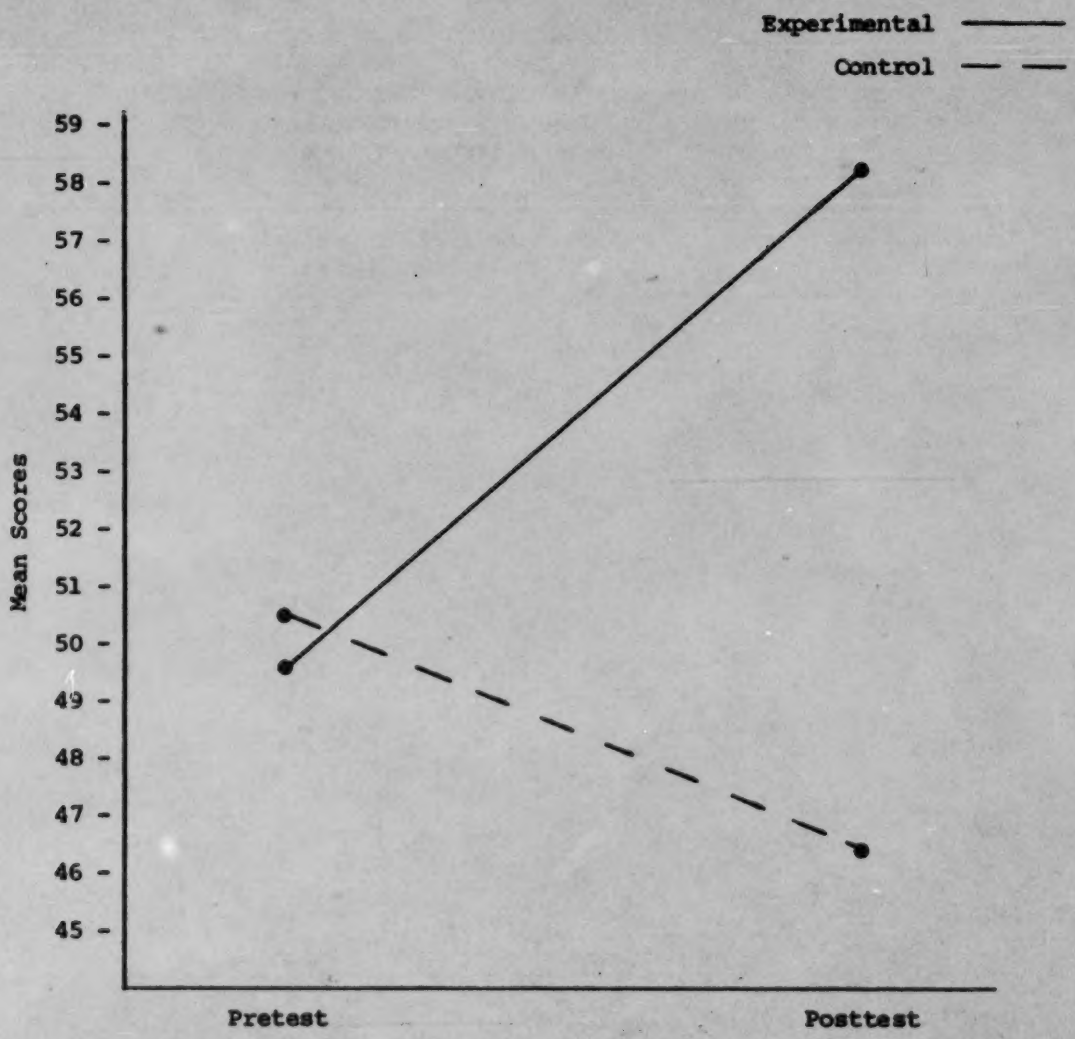
deviations, and T-Test comparisons between the experimental and control groups on this total scale as well as all subscales are reported in Table 10. The first attitudinal subscale termed as the teacher subscale is divided further into three minor subscales--(a) teacher's mode of instruction, (b) teacher's authority and control, (c) teacher's interpersonal relationships with pupils. Examination of Table 10 evidences that children's attitudes towards teacher's mode of instruction were not significantly different between experimental and control groups on this postttest assessment. On the teacher minor subscale of teacher's authority and control, the experimental group exhibited a more positive attitude toward this aspect of teacher behavior than did the control group, attaining a .05 level of significance between groups. Experimental children also perceived the teacher's interpersonal relationships with pupils in a more favorable light than did control children attaining a .01 level of significance between the groups. With regards to Social Structure and Climate, the attitudes of both groups were not significantly different. However, after the intervention program, the experimental children expressed significantly more positive attitudes toward learning than did the control children on this posttest. Experimental children also expressed significantly more favorable attitudes toward peers and toward school in general after treatment than did the control children. As shown in Figure 9, experimental and control children held similar attitudes prior to

TABLE 10

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE SCHOOL SENTIMENT INDEX

Assessment Subscales	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Teacher:			
Mode of Instruction	8.188 (1.682)	7.000 (2.765)	1.4891
Authority and Control	8.250 (1.769)	7.167 (1.581)	1.8858*
Interpersonal Relationships with Pupils	10.625 (1.586)	7.944 (1.765)	4.6344**
Social Structure and Climate	5.125 (1.962)	5.222 (1.734)	-1.5337
Learning	8.375 (1.746)	6.278 (1.934)	3.7018**
Peer	7.875 (1.784)	6.500 (1.339)	2.5593**
General	9.812 (1.721)	6.278 (2.516)	4.7187**
Total Scale	58.250 (7.353)	46.389 (7.325)	4.7041**

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 4.7041$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 9. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the School Sentiment Index (total scale).

treatment with respect to their sentiment towards schooling; however, after treatment the experimental children exhibited much more positive attitudes toward their schooling than did the control children. A $t_{32} = 4.7041$ exceeds the .01 level of significance.

CHILDREN'S READING ATTITUDES

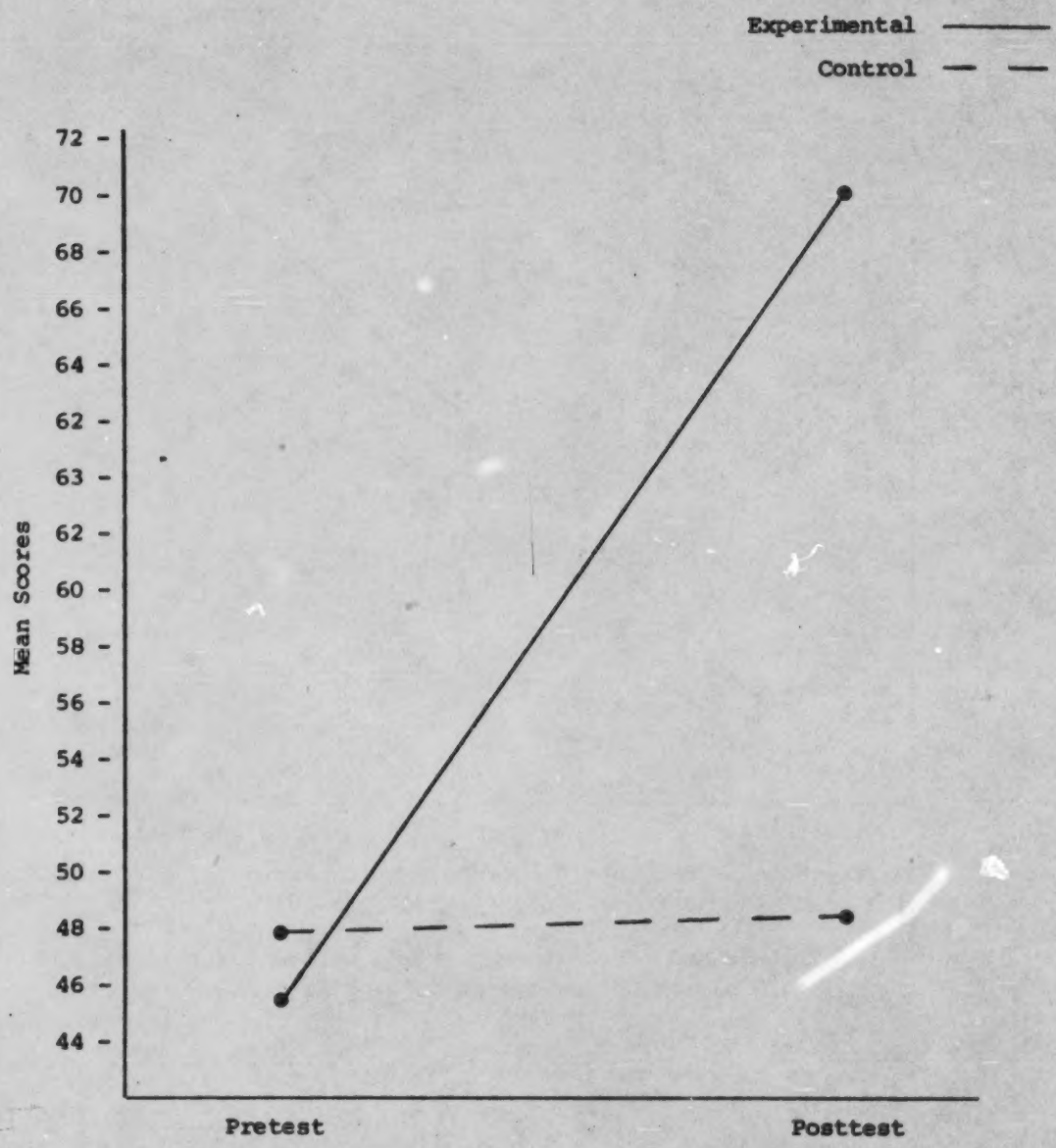
Posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups on the Dulin-Chester Reading Attitude Survey (1975) are reported in Table 11. Comprising two individual scales--(1) behavioral, (2) attitudinal--scores and analyses were conducted and are presented separately in Table 11. The behavioral scale on which the respondent rates their reading activities as compared with alternative non-reading activities evidences that the experimental children would prefer to involve themselves in reading activities (after the intervention program) significantly more often than would control children. Likewise, experimental children expressed significantly more positive attitudes toward reading than did the control children on this posttest measure. Upon examination of Figure 10 and Figure 11 it can be observed that prior to treatment the children of both groups expressed similar reading attitudes, however, after treatment the experimental group exhibited reading attitudes that were significantly higher than those of the control group. Posttest results on both scales of the Reading

TABLE 11

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE DULIN-CHESTER READING ATTITUDE SURVEY

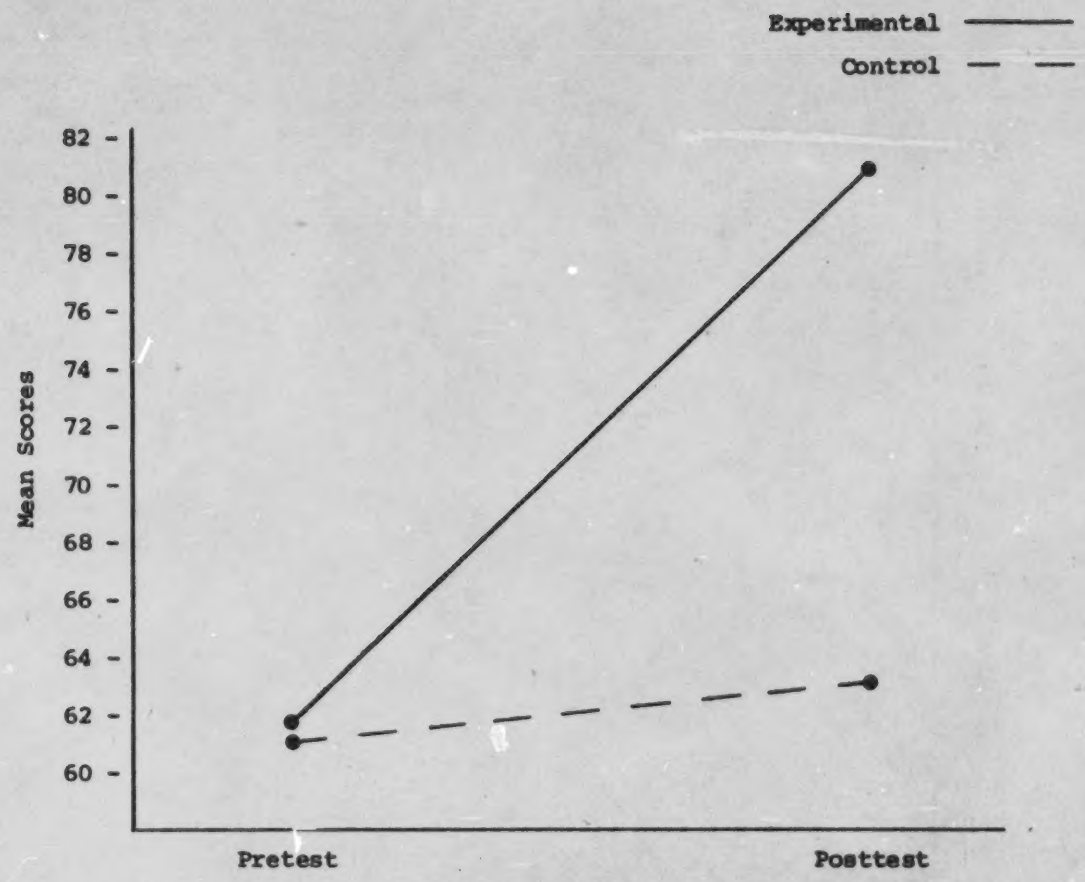
Assessment	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Dulin-Chester Reading Attitude Survey:			
Behavioral Scale	70.500 (13.366)	48.167 (9.623)	5.6500**
Attitudinal Scale	81.250 (8.683)	62.888 (8.864)	6.0860**

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 5.6500$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 10. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the behavioral subscale of the Dulin-Chester Reading Attitude Survey.



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 6.0860$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 11. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the attitudinal subscale of the Dulin-Chester Reading Attitude Survey.

Attitude Survey evidenced significant differences between experimental and control groups (exceeding the .01 level of significance).

CHILDREN'S READING ACHIEVEMENT

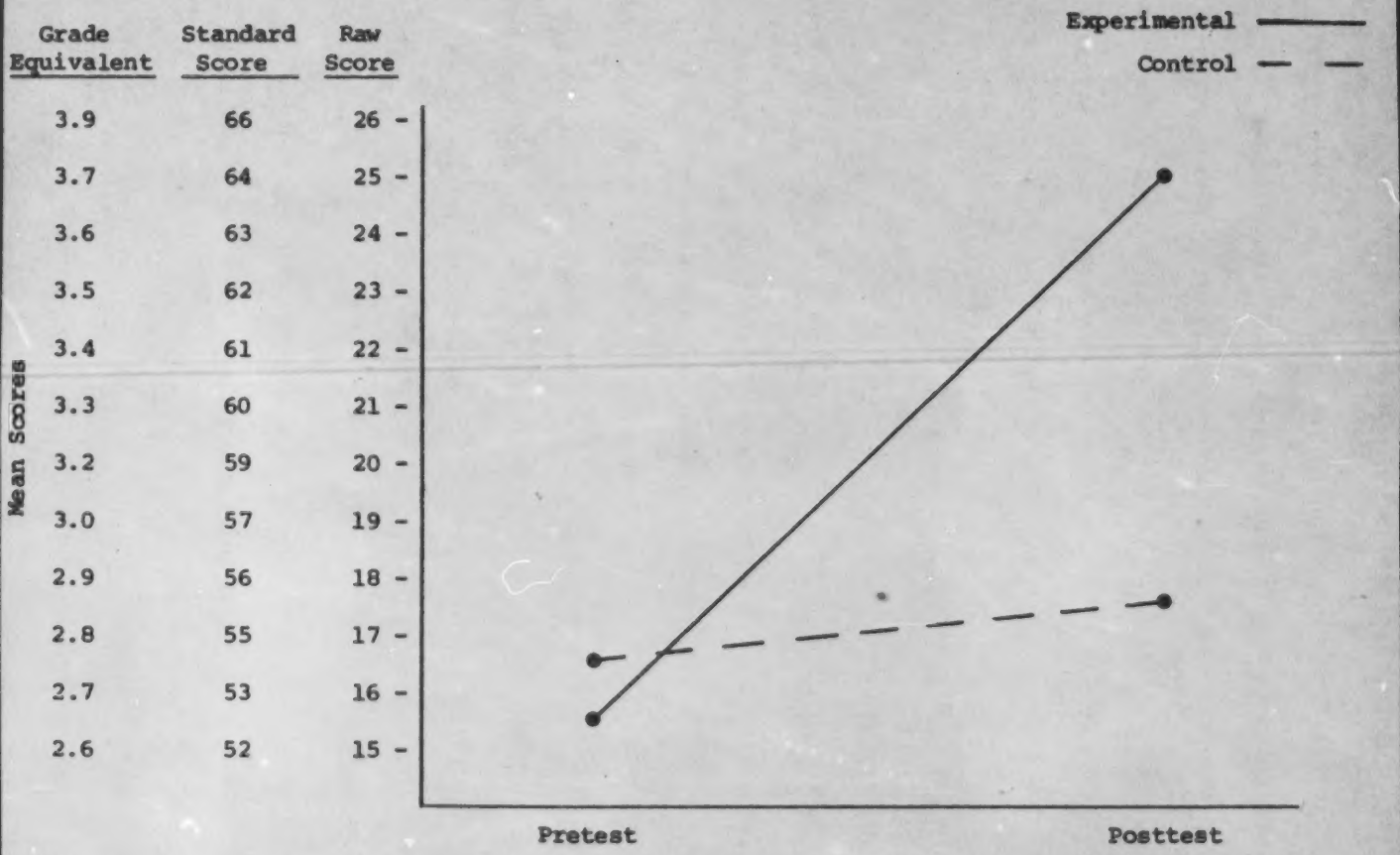
Posttest group means, standard deviations, and T-Test comparisons between experimental and control groups on the Metropolitan Achievement Test--Reading (1971) are reported in Table 12. T-Test analysis revealed significant differences between experimental and control groups on this posttreatment assessment of reading achievement (t_{32} = 4.0650 exceeds .01 level of significance). As illustrated in Figure 12 at the time of the pretest assessment, the experimental group of children were functioning somewhat below (not significantly) the control children in their reading achievement level. The experimental children were reading at about a 2.7 grade equivalency level while the control children were reading at about a 2.8 grade equivalency level. As shown in Figure 12 the control children (as a group) gained approximately one month's reading achievement during their nonparticipation in the treatment program, while the experimental children (as a group) gained approximately 12 full months of reading achievement as measured by the Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test during the same time period. The different reading levels of the two groups (post-intervention) is highly significant, exceeding the .01 level of significance.

TABLE 12

POSTTEST GROUP MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS (IN PARENTHESES), AND T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE METROPOLITAN ACHIEVEMENT TEST--READING

Assessment	Experimental Group	Control Group	T_{32}
Metropolitan Achievement Test for Reading	25.062	17.667	4.0650**
	(3.750)	(6.352)	

**$p < .01$



Posttest mean score difference between Experimental and Control groups yielded a $t = 4.065$, $df = 32$, $p < .01$.

Figure 12. Pretest and posttest mean scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Test for Reading.

PSYCHOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTRUMENTS

Hoyt internal consistency reliability estimates (Hoyt, 1941) were calculated for each item on all the child dependent measures as well as the Parental Educational Attitude Survey. The LERTAP I analysis program (Nelson, 1975) was utilized for this purpose. The sample size N = 34 was consistent for all measures. The reliability estimates and number of items for each instrument are presented in Table 13.

WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORTS

At the end of each week during the intervention program (on Fridays), teachers sent home to parents a "weekly progress report" (See Appendix E). This report was designed to share with the parents the various reading acitivites their youngster participated in at school, and was to give suggestions for the parent(s)-child reading activities at home. In addition to this report, the teacher was to send home reading-related materials for utilization by the parent during their parent-child reading conferences.

At the beginning of each week (Mondays), the parent sent to the teacher a report of the parent-child activities for the previous week (See Appendix F). Each week the school counselor received duplicate copies of these weekly progress reports.

These weekly progress report exchanges were meant to enhance home-school rapport. These reports were constructed in such a way

TABLE 13

HOYT INTERNAL RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR CHILD DEPENDENT MEASURES AND THE PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDE SURVEY*

Dependent Measure	Hoyt Reliability
Metropolitan Achievement Test--Reading (45 items)	.70
Dulind-Chester Reading Attitude Survey (40 items)	.77
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (58 items)	.54
School Sentiment Index (81 items)	.79
Junior Index of Motivation to Learn (Modified) (40 items)	.56
Parental Educational Attitude Survey (27 items)	.63

*Based on N of 34.

as to provide a measure of parent-teacher-child behavior during the intervention program. At the conclusion of the intervention program, the information and communication exchanged via these progress reports were tabulated for analysis purposes. Upon examination of this data, it was most apparent that it was virtually identical to and highly substantiated by the posttest measures of parent-teacher rapport and parent involvement, as collected from parents and teachers following conclusion of the treatment program. In order to present these data analyses in a nonredundant manner, the reader is referred to the earlier reported parent-teacher rapport and parent involvement results (Tables 4 and 5).

To assess the utilization of the IGM and STEP books and related reading materials provided parents during the initial inservice training session, parents were asked to indicate on their weekly progress reports whether or not they had "found time this week to read some" of these materials. All parents reported reading the IGM and STEP materials at some time during the intervention program. In addition, it was observed that each week during the treatment period approximately 72% of the parents reported reading the IGM and/or STEP materials during the previous week. This would indicate that parents relied on these books and pamphlets extensively as resource materials to provide instruction and guidance for their participation in the learning activities with their children.

Each week parents were asked to describe (in their progress

reports to the school) the reading-related activities (other than the adult-child reading conferences) that they had participated in with their child. The reader may recall that these activities were not structured in any manner as prescribed by their participation in the intervention program, but were instead left totally up to the discretion of the parent and child as to what and how they were to involve themselves in such weekly reading-related activities. Some illustrative examples of these activities as reported by parents follow (a semicolon indicates a change of speaker, i.e., a new parent):

> "Steven helped to bake cookies, reading the ingredients and helping to measure them--we also discussed getting up earlier and going to school earlier; went to the library; we listened to reading tapes; reading signs while traveling, restaurant placemats, shopping store signs; reading to grandma; reading labels at the store; reading directions on a leatherwork project; tried to teach the smaller kids reading and to learn numbers; we read about shells and studied a hermit crab together; bought three short story books; listened to the tape, "I Can Read about Dinosaurs"; read seed packages together while planting the garden; read cereal boxes and talked about reading and study habits; read "Ranger Rick" together; used an encyclopedia and played Yahtzee with Janet keeping her own score; we discussed library books and went to the library; read poems together; we didn't do a lot of reading this week, but we talked a lot; read with Dad; read a recipe for fudge frosting; read comics; read scout book; played Scrabble; went for a nature walk and picked different leaves--looked them up in Boy Scout book and encyclopedia; I read to all the kids; helped Dad load the truck--had to read labels on the outside of boxes; we read "The Mouse and the Motorcycle"--all my boys are enjoying this book!; got several books from the public library; we didn't read because I found Tom to have a lot of things on his mind that we needed to talk about; read into a tape recorder; we read Walt Disney books together; all she wanted to do was read--so we did; read items off grocery list and helped me find them on the shelves--also played Scrabble; we worked on a chore list; he caught a snake and wrote a report on it--his Dad helped him do the report; he read on his own this week using

my "Creative Family Workshop" books; he has been reading to his seven-year-old brother; we went to the school library."

The weekly progress reports provided parents a format to communicate with their child's teacher as well as a method for teachers to relate directly to the parents of their students. It was observed that parents and teachers frequently worte to one another "additional comments" in their weekly reports. Some of these personal communications are illustrative of the degree of rapport that was established between the home, school, and child during the intervention program. Several of these "Additional Comments" follow:

"Enjoying the book you sent--can I come see you this week for more? Steve is very excited about this program; the program gets Dad to spend more time with Troy--they went fishing, golfing, and played basketball together this week; I would appreciate it if I could visit with you at school; I'm proud of the way Roy is trying to master his book--we're going to keep working on it; so far she has been very excited about doing everything, it makes it very easy to work with her; we enjoyed the use of your tape-recorder very much--thank you; I will be visiting school sometime--let me know what times are best; after the initial shock of extra work to do and actually becoming involved in reading projects related to his interests, he showed enthusiasm and seems eager to participate in this study; she says she likes to read about animals; Pat likes to listen and read with your tapes, but is not too "gung ho" on reading in "How It Is Nowadays"; Karla enjoys doing this at home, I have no trouble getting her to do it; I was sick most of this past week--sorry--hope to do better this week; we didn't have too much time this week because I worked, but we made it!; Bruce is getting madder and madder about the whole program and I need much more education; the books you sent home are very good for Steve--he is interested in animals, we visited a farm that had ducks, geese, and pigs today; enthused about the report on Friday!; Robert is learning about baseball--are there any books there on that?; I'm having a problem in family cooperation on Diane's part, when I suggest something she'll go and get angry, just about every method I've tried has failed, I'd like to find out what I'm doing wrong; a very relaxed relationship, everything is going well; they all have enjoyed me reading to

them, even Todd, my four-year-old who has a hard time sitting still; he liked having those books you sent wrapped up like a present--he really tore that paper off!; Troy has shown embarrassment when reading in front of his brothers; does this happen in class?; please send the SRA cards home; from reading in the parent handbook I have discovered that Tom and I needed more guidance in improving our communication; can you pick me up for tonight's meeting?; we enjoy looking for and planning special things to do as a family; I listened to your tapes--she enjoys this very much; I have found this whole course very interesting; I don't know if he's reading any better, but at last there is no more hassle about doing it; Tracy seems to be getting along quite well as far as behavior goals this week; he seems to be reading better; you were right--he was very unhappy, but after the conference we're getting things out in the open; I'm grateful that I've had a chance to participate in this program--I know its going to help us; we're having a hard time keeping up with our conferences--it's so nice out--but we're trying; please send more reading material; she enjoys reading the books you send home; we hope to have a better week this time; Steve is very upset about a test he said he had not done well on--he was told by Mrs. T. (a teacher) that they had to do their best or stay in 3rd grade (she didn't mean it, but Steve took it seriously)--Mrs. T is a wonderful person, for I work with her at the Moose Lodge, would like to see if you can reassure him, please. He also got a haircut Saturday; when do we sign up for summer school?; I'm sorry we didn't do much this week--we put in a new backyard swimming pool; we will work with Chris the whole summer and take him to the library; I think the program has helped; I'm feeling better about Tracy and I think Tracy feels better about himself; we have all enjoyed this program; we listened to your tapes--I love it!; you were right--Pat does seem more willing to read more, the tapes on cars and minibikes really helped, as he knows about them and I don't--I think he likes the idea that Mom really doesn't know about everything! The only problem is--he wants a minibike now! (You don't think that could be included in the program?)!"

PARENT INTERVIEWS

Parents of both the control and experimental groups were

individually interviewed both prior to and after the intervention program. All interviews consisted of the administration of the Parent-Teacher Rapport Questionnaire, Parent Involvement Questionnaire, and the Parental Educational Attitude Survey. At the conclusion of this interview process (posttest interview), experimental parents were asked to respond to five additional questions posed by the investigator. These questions were designed to facilitate an open-ended discussion for the purpose of receiving parental feedback on their individual perceptions of the intervention program. Such issues as child and family attitudinal and behavioral changes, aspects of the inservice training sessions, and various components of the program they deemed as worthwhile or effective were thought to provide valuable information which could have implications for later educational intervention programming. These interviews which were tape-recorded included the following five questions:

(1) Have you seen any changes in your child's behavior over the past couple of months?

(2) Have you noticed any changes in your child's attitudes during the past couple of months?

(3) Have there been any changes in your family's methods of relating to each other--communications, behavior, activities, whatever in the past couple of months?

(4) What in your mind were the strengths and weaknesses (most helpful and least helpful) about the program as you saw it?

(5) The schools have decided to run this program again in the fall--how might we change the program to make it more effective or better?

Experimental parent responses to these questions during the post-intervention discussion interview were compiled and are reported as follows:

(1) Have you seen any changes in your child's behavior over the past couple of months?

"He talks more to me--he's more willing to sit down and talk more--he used to be more quiet, he didn't like to read or listen to reading--now he does; he stands up for himself now; he likes to read now, not before; yeah--she likes school better; he did more reading, he liked reading, discovered more; quite a bit--schoolwise--he has more confidence in himself, he feels special, he seems to be growing up faster--maybe because he has been given some attention once in a while; yes, Connie has felt really special, she and her sister almost compete to get their assignments done and correct each other, she has really improved on her school work--she likes reading more and is doing better--she has read more in the past two months than I've ever seen her before; yes, Diane is really trying harder, likes to go to school, "a changed child," talks about school now and shares with me more; she is friendlier with other children too, gets along with her brothers and sisters better--not so many fights, she wants to do her school work with me now; he did much more reading, he liked talking about his reading--we discussed it more; yeah--he listens better, behaving better, getting better school reports--this is because the counselor and teacher and I have all given extra attention--he feels good about that; yes, Tommy has changed because I've changed, he's now more sociable--he used to withdraw using the excuse that he was stupid and dumb--this was a cop-out for him, those chapters in the book on inadequacy really hit the nail on the head, now I've seen a change in all this--he's become more aggressive, rather than pouting so much, he tries harder now at home and school; he tries to please us now, before he worked haphazardly but now he tries to do it right--but then I'm trying to make him do it right

now too; he seems to enjoy being around here now; yeah, he's going to get a "1" in reading now--he used to be very unhappy about his report card but now since he's getting "1's" he's really enthusiastic about school now; he wants to spend more time with me now--it really helped him academically; he comes home and tells me what he's doing in school and his grades are so much better--he had a "2-" in reading before and now he's getting a "1"; they took a reading test at school and the only one who got a higher score than he was Karla, and she was in the program too, so the program really did wonders for their reading; yep--before he started the program he'd give up easily and lose his temper--since he's been in the program he's learned to control that, he's learned to vent his anger in different ways, he can now walk away from a fight whereas before he'd have gotten a "pink-slip" from the school principal; working with the guidance counselor and everyone involved in this program has made him really feel special and consequently he has really changed for the better; he's been working on his workbook more, he's learned more patience; she has enjoyed school more--she liked the system--very cooperative; she does more in school now; she's been doing a lot better--her grades have been coming up--she brings me her grade reports now; she has more motivation to do better; yes--I feel that basically overall the program has been beneficial, there have been times when I'm sure that Chip would rather have done something else but this program gave him more incentive, and he's appreciated the results of his efforts; he appreciates himself--his self-esteem--the attention he received from this program made him feel as though he was important, not only to other people but also to himself; he felt more worthy; it forced him to participate--it encouraged him (most of the time) to carry through with what he had promised to do and not let down his obligations to others (parents and teachers) nor to himself too--that was the greatest change in Chip, and I'd say that was pretty important; this program has increased his self-esteem and pride in one's accomplishments."

(2) Have you noticed any changes in your child's attitudes during the past couple of months?

"He has a better attitude about himself--he thinks he can do things better now, where before he would try something once and that was the end of it and he wouldn't try

anymore; he's excited about learning--all he cared about before was fighting; he's interested in maps and geography--I didn't know that before so now I've gotten these for him; yes--I've see a change in his attitudes--he, too, talks about how he is changing--he's happy to know that I know that he's changing for the better; he's much happier now; he says we've both changed; his teachers think he's changed too--a lot; he likes school and himself better; he's really enthusiastic about school now; I can spend two hours in an evening on school work with him now--he likes the extra attention (from me and his teacher); his feelings are still hurt pretty easily; he's happer; he's changed his ideas and what's important and what's not; before he was afraid he would not be liked by everyone, but now he realizes that it isn't necessary to be liked by everyone--that's a big lesson for a nine-year-old kid--most people at 30 still haven't learned that; he's more eager to learn now--he wants to get it (school work) done and if he doesn't understand it, he'll come to me or his father now; he feels more confident; she does more for me 'cause she has seen me sit down and help her with her school work; she likes school better 'cause she was getting more involvement from her teacher and me--she saw me as going back to school, too; she really likes herself, she tries harder; her attitude at school really changed--she's become very enthused about the school and the teacher; she knew we cared and were relating to her teacher--this made her feel more enthused about school; she's more confident now; she was really proud of her weekly reports and eager to bring them home to us; he thinks more of himself--especially with school-related things; we both know that we're in the program and need to do it."

(3) Have there been any changes in your family's methods of relating to each other--communication, behavior, activities, whatever--in the past couple of months?

"We (parent and child) worked very hard on this program; we both spent much time and we wanted it to work--and it did; he likes reading--I'm (parent) a poor reader and now I even think I'm reading better, too; we'd take turns reading together--he sees me as going back to school, too, and so we're learning together; Mrs. A. (teacher) has been very helpful; we (parent and child) treat each other differently now--he's not a baby boy anymore--more grown up--

he likes himself and feels bigger now; Robert and I are going to keep doing this forever--it's fun!--Robert wants to more than I, and I really want to keep doing it; I've really discovered my daughter--she and I have fun together--before I worked and she went to school, but now I look forward to our evening sessions and weekend trips--her mother used to take care of the kids and now Wendy and I are involved together; we relate more as a family; your program got me into the school--I never had felt like I could, never felt welcome or even allowed to, the teacher was just someone who taught the kids--now I know her personally; he (child) gets along with both his Dad and I better; he talks about school a lot more now--something he wouldn't do before unless you hit him over the head; the program gets more information between the school/teachers and me--I know more about Steve's schooling now than I have had with any of my other six children (ages 4-20)--and the teacher knows more about our family too; we all share our own interests more now with each other; I spend more time with her and she and her brothers and sisters get along better; the program has gotten us to share about school; I did more changing than my son; I'm more aware of his interests, I've picked up books for him; yeah--he can still throw a tantrum (he does have a temper), but he is learning to control it better at home, he gets along better with his younger brother--he reads to him--he didn't read at all before--I didn't realize he could read so well; Dad spends more time with him--they read together and play games together more; I don't feel as though I must compensate for him now--I hold him more responsible now; I've been trying to handle Troy differently--before I didn't expect so much from him (and neither did my husband), but now we try to expect more, by explaining more what I want from him, being more patient with him; yes--mostly Troy and me, we enjoy each other more now--he's happier now with the conferences--it's helped a lot--communication is better, I can get things across to him better now--before I expected him to know what I was talking about, now I take the time to explain to him better; I'm really pleased with the progress he's made; yes, before I (mother) used to have to do everything with the kid's school work but now Ken (father) does just as much with them--he read the literature and has gone to the meetings and does the conferences too--Troy needed his father's companionship--and now they do everything together--mostly little things that they didn't take the time to do before--it's really helped--we do more things as a family now than we did before; the program made us (parents) realize that

we have to take the time and give it to our kids--it's so easy with both of us working to come home at night and forget the kids--but we've come to realize that to the kids, school is work too, so now we try and treat the kids like they're friends and to do more as a family; even the older brother who didn't go through the program (junior high age child) sat down with me in these conferences--it worked with him too--the extra attention does make a difference, I've learned to take the time with the kids now and to listen more--I've come to understand and realize how important this is; the program really helped me to deal with the other kids in the family--with the younger kids as well; it taught me to not put down my kids; the family is closer--we now know the teacher--with both of us (parents) going to the meetings we can relate to school better and be involved in the conferences; we didn't used to sit down with Karie before except only for punishment purposes, but now with the conferences we have become much closer; I (father) realize that you need to spend more of your time with your youngster; before with other teachers in other schools they were only an image to me (parent) that Karie would talk about, but here through this program we now know the teacher--we have lots of contact; I feel that these school people really care about us as persons--I thought it was great that they took the time to spend this program and the extra time with the kids and the families--makes it easier to pay the school taxes!; I have a lot more respect for the school system now; because of the program we took the extra time to work with our children--and that has never done anybody any harm; reading that book that came with the course made it so that we were more tolerant and understanding; everyone took part--we try to do things with the kids--reading was one thing we had not done with the kids as much as we should have--this program is something that should be done in all homes; we derived lots of benefits from this program--closer relationships, understanding of one another's needs, likes, dislikes, interests--its now easier to define Chip's interests through the reading."

(4) What in your mind were the strengths and weaknesses (most helpful and least helpful) about the program as you saw it?

Program Strengths

The schools interest in my child--his teacher is exceptional; it (the program) gives the teacher protection,

me some protection, and the child some protection--even if they aren't as capable of learning as well as somebody else; kids can blame the teacher and the parents don't realize that they're losing control--but if we work together--that's what's been wrong with the schools--we haven't worked together--parents and teachers--we can't separate anymore--we need to work together; taking the time to spend with him, normally you wouldn't; that book was really helpful--and was really interesting--I keep going back to it too--I think you should read it two or three times; it (program) really improved their reading; while it's hard to do with four kids, going to the school and the IMC along with the conferences was most helpful; I thought it was a good program; the book--that book is really good--its not super easy to incorporate that into your everyday life, but it makes sense--it works; the actual weekly assignment from the teacher made us do the work which we would probably not have done previously; I'm glad they picked us to be in the program, reading was a good area to try the program in, it should be done in all schools; especially that book--it really caused me to change a lot to understand the kids more--problems aren't so big anymore; you think your kid is the only one who has problems but the program made me realize differently; I'm glad you don't want the book back cause its going to help me as the younger kids grow older--its really a great book; I understand my kids better and now knowing how to solve the problems and what to do--not just with Karla but with all the kids--the older ones have so many different problems, much different than when I (parent) was a kid; I liked the inservice meetings, I liked the ideas on how to handle different situations--the psychology of it, I found them interesting, helpful, humorous--I just enjoyed them; the books taught you how to deal with different circumstances; I liked the relaxed atmosphere of the meetings; getting the weekly reports really helped a lot--they made you feel as though someone really cared about you and your kid; the close relationship with the teacher and that we're all interested in the child; it's so easy to get wrapped up in your own activities, but the program allowed us to get closer with one another; I wish more teachers could do this in a positive way--I've been contacted by the school before but only with problems--negative aspects, but here we had good positive reports; the good down-to-earth "jam sessions" with parents and teachers were very good and most enjoyable--we parents can't do it all--we need everyone's help; the communication

between the school and me--I really liked that--cause I knew what he was doing at school and I'd tell her (teacher) what he was doing at home; she's the first teacher I've really known of his past four teachers, and he (child) knew we'd talk about him--so he tried harder; what they sent home, the specific things they (the children) were supposed to do was excellent; I really liked the weekly report; I liked the meetings, the films, and the counselors were very informative, they made me realize that other parents have problem kids like I do, after all my child is quite a kid--but other parents have their hands full too; I liked the book--it was very good--I enjoyed it; it (the program) should continue--there are some good teachers at the school--it's a good idea; the strength part is that parent's handbook--I like to read better than listening; I think the parents had the opportunity to speak up about their child's learning problem--I think a lot of parents feel guilty--and we shouldn't feel guilty--we could get together with the teachers when we don't know how to deal with this at home; the contact with the teacher was superb; I really learned a lot from you guys at the night sessions (inservice training) and that book is like a bible--I go back to it often; the program was great--fantastic even, I really learned a lot, the book has helped us with all the kids--my husband read it too; Mrs. B. (teacher) helped me a lot and shared her own personal experiences--the small group discussions were great; while most parents want to help, they don't know how--this program had the answers."

Program Weaknesses

"Me--I didn't do all my reading--but I finished most of it; the time of the year the program started--it was a busy time; no weaknesses--most of it was good, the meetings were interesting; if the program were longer it would be better--it would be better for parents and teachers to be involved in a long-term therapy group--deal with real honest feelings--out in the open; listening to the movies--what's the sense of movies--get the parents and teachers together and deal with each other--maybe one short movie, but then get everyone in a circle and involve themselves more; I can't think of any weaknesses--the coffee was lousy!; the films were not all that great, I got more out of listening to the counselors--they had good

ideas and a good way of getting it across--very good knowledgeable speakers; the fathers should somehow be forced to participate more--they don't take the time to understand why the kids don't do this or that so they should participate more in the program; if the program is going to work even better, fathers should be more involved--I told him (the father) that he should read the book cause it really does help you to understand your kids--he says he's going to, but I don't know if he will or not; I can't say there was any least helpful aspects of the program--I enjoyed the whole thing; change the size of the chairs at the meetings (most chairs were children's sizes); a couple of those filmstrips could have been discarded--could have gotten up and told us easier than the films; None--nothing negative--I wouldn't say there were any least helpful things--the books, meetings, counselors, and teachers were all most beneficial and enjoyable; if there had been more meetings most of the parents would have become less self-conscious and would have talked together easier--given each other more feedback; some of the information was too academic--terms could have been simpler; I would keep it all the same--made us much more aware."

(5) The schools have decided to continue the program again in the fall--how might we change the program to make it more effective?

"If it was later in the school year--the winter time would be good, everything has been so busy--confirmation, graduation, and the nice weather makes the kids want to play outside; I think the idea is very, very good--really great--I think that there are some parents who don't understand what that book is trying to tell them--they can't accept their feelings--they're defensive about their child's problems, I used to blame the school, but now I know better; there used to be a buffer between me and the school--he (the child) used to hate the school--we couldn't do it alone so now we all have worked together; parents and teachers both need to be educated--I hope it (the program) continues--it's been needed for a long, long time; have more small group discussions; the films weren't all that helpful--it was explained in them and sort of double explained by the principals and counselors--could have more problem solving discussion groups with the parents; make the program longer--from the beginning of the year on, I'm going to try and keep this (the conferences) up

during the summer; do the program in the junior high schools too; I wish it was in the winter time--it's so nice out now, the garden takes a lot of time--I'd have more time to give the kids in the winter--start the program right after Christmas; keep the inservice training sessions--they give you a chance to learn with other parents from the films, lecture, etc.; include all the kids; do it in the winter; I'd like to see more parents participate--it's very helpful; maybe fill out the forms (weekly progress reports) every other week--I didn't mind filling them out, but maybe the teacher wouldn't have enough time to fill them out weekly for all her kids--I really enjoyed the reports--finding out just what they were doing in school; it's such a good program--I really enjoyed it--I wish there had been more parents cause more parents should take part in their kids; send those progress reports all year around--they give you a real good idea what the kids are doing in school and you get to know the teachers better through the reports--they are the ones you trust your kids to everyday--and they (the teachers) learn more about you (the parents) at home; get everyone involved--get more parents to read that book would be a great help; have a large meeting for all parents at the beginning of the year and convey those ideas--I'm sure that a lot of parents don't realize that they can go down to the school, walk in, and observe their children--we didn't know that--simply because we had never been made to feel as welcome as we have through this program; at other schools I really had gotten the impression that I was in the way and that even Karie was too, but now here we've really felt welcome at school; we and the kids used to be leery of the school; I think this school has got a lot going for it; involve all grades and other subjects--not just reading--carry on this program with all teachers and all year long; there must be some way that we can motivate other parents to show this interest in their children; change absolutely nothing--just keep doing it; I enjoyed the program--most people don't get together to discuss school and kids very often; run the program all year long, even if the schools don't, we (the parents) are going to do it again; there weren't enough meetings, they made it easy to talk to one another--talking about children's behavior and how to handle things and that book taught me the most--now I stop and think when I get on my soapbox and being "a-know-it-all"; this program has been fantastic for this family and we're going to do it all summer--hope they (the schools) do it again next year."

TEACHER INTERVIEWS

At the time of posttesting, all teachers were requested to complete a Teacher-Parent Rapport Questionnaire and a Motivational Checklist. The results of these indices have been reported earlier within this chapter. Additionally, teachers who had children in their classes who had been exposed to the treatment program (experimental subjects) were interviewed to solicit their impressions of these children's behavioral and attitudinal changes (if any), as well as their (the teacher's) perceptions regarding the intervention program.

Upon examination of this interview data, it was observed that the teachers' impressions were very similar and highly reflective of the judgments and perceptions of parents, as reported earlier in this chapter. Consequently, this anecdotal data will be presented at this time in a brief summary format. The behavioral changes exhibited by experimental students were often described by teachers as the behaviors they and the child had concentrated on as motivational behavioral goals during their weekly teacher-child goal setting conferences. Citing behaviors often thought to contribute to academic growth, teacher most often mentioned that these children "listened better, completed tasks on time and more often, participated in class more, appeared more motivated, day-dreamed less, related better with peers, followed directions, completed neater work, tried harder and longer on difficult tasks, volunteered more often, read more

often and better," and frequently stated that these children were simply "greatly enthusiastic." One child's attendance was observed to greatly improve, with the teacher stating that "the child used to attend three out of five days, and now, since the program, it's been five out of five with only one absence in two months." This teacher further commented that the mother of this previously-often absent child "used to allow these absences to occur, but not any longer." Another teacher, a school unit leader, described one student "as becoming a 'model student'--all due to the increased attention he had received from home and school." Another child was characterized as having "popped out" and had become more verbal and was interacting with peers whereas before the child was described as "quiet and withdrawn." This youngster had improved in reading skills to such a point that she had become "a respected class and reading group member." Teachers described one child's reading achievement as having gone up 21% on the annual school-wide reading achievement test (given just prior to the end of the intervention program). Another child had "jumped from one of my worst readers to the second best in my class."

With respect to the experimental children's attitudes, teachers most frequently cited children's increased self-esteem, self-worth, or self-concept. Other attitudinal changes often mentioned by teachers were that these children "now like to read, feel more successful, more trusting, more cheerful, understanding of the importance of

reading, more pleasant, more motivated," and generally exhibiting "a better attitude all the way around." Teachers often contended that the reasons for these and other attitudinal changes were that these children "felt special" as due to the "increased attention and involvement of Mother and Dad." One child was noted to frequently ask his teacher at the day's end, "Was I more cheerful today?" In summary, one teacher stated "the kids enjoyed the extra attention and their school work and behavior evidences it."

Teacher's comments, evidencing their perceptions of the various facets of the intervention program, were generally highly positive. Several teachers remarked that the program gave them the opportunity to understand and appreciate the personal qualities of participating parents. One teacher further noted that "parents used to think and be afraid of the schools, buildings, and teachers--but now these parents don't feel that way anymore." Another teacher contended that the program made it possible for her to "understand and teach to the specific learning styles of two of her students." While often describing the program as "real good, exciting, excellent, and worthwhile," teachers also offered some critical critique. One teacher stated "the weekly progress reports forced me to follow through with the program--to stay on task; however, this would be impossible to run for all kids." General concensus from teachers (also often mentioned by parents) was that the program would be most beneficial if initiated shortly after the Christmas recess. These perceptions

were supported by such rationale as: the teachers would need that much time (fall semester) to identify children with needs suitable for such a program, it would entail less conflict with holidays and school events and the weather would be more conducive--cold temperatures forcing kids and parents indoors. Teachers often suggested that the program should be expanded to all grades and encompassing of several curricular areas. A number of teachers saw the program as an excellent opportunity for professional as well as personal growth for themselves and their colleagues. Suggestions for the modification of future like-type programs, other than holding the sessions earlier in the year, included a greater number of parent-teacher inservice sessions, a separate initial teacher in-service session, a greater emphasis on small group problem-solving sessions, and expansion to other curricular areas. One teacher stated, "I wish they had this program in my daughter's school"; and virtually all participating teachers suggested that they would continue the parent-teacher rapport procedures in the future, if by chance their school did not implement the program in its entirety next year. One unit leader stated "we will use the program next year, and I'll be very happy to participate in the program again." Another teacher summarized her feelings by saying, "This was a hell of a lot of work--but really worth it."

PRINCIPAL AND COUNSELOR OBSERVATIONS

At the conclusion of the intervention program, all participating counselors and principals were interviewed to solicit their impressions regarding what they often labeled as the "parent-teacher program." These counselors and principals were the same individuals who had facilitated the inservice training sessions, presented the lectures and materials, ran the group discussions, and generally provided the "oil" to keep the intervention program running smoothly. Inasmuch as these professional educators served as integral facilitators of the intervention program, their perceptions must be considered as biased. However, their observations may provide the reader with some insight into the apparent success experienced by those involved with the program.

One principal stressed the importance of the communication between parents and teachers as he described his observations of the program in his school. He stated, "What made the program go was the communication between parents and teachers that was required to take place--I think it strengthened home-school relations in that it gave parents and teachers some concrete things to work on and allowed for structured follow-up sessions." Another principal reflected a similar observation by contending that his teachers had "an opportunity to get together with parents at various times during the program--to share common problems and pragamtics." One counselor described his role by remarking, "I think it was a very good counselor's

tool in that it helped parents who did not have good communication skills, as it taught them how to communicate and thus helped their kids to communicate."

Specific aspects often mentioned by counselors and principals as program strengths were: "it zeroed in on reading--which is a big factor in motivation and self-esteem; the contracts completed by kids, parents, and teachers were a vital function--they provided the necessary structure but also allowed for the freedom of individual differences."

Given their supportive administrative and counselor roles, principals and counselors were able to observe the impact of the program as it affected all participants--not just children. One principal summarized his observations of his school's parents and teachers by stating "some of the behaviors we noticed were that parents and teachers stayed longer, worked more and gave more than requested." A counselor remarked that "parents' behavior became more positive to the efforts teachers and the school were trying to make. . .parents and teachers became more supportive of one another and consequently they were more consistent in handling situations pertaining to the child--in both positive as well as negative situations."

The behavioral and attitudinal changes observed among the children by principals and counselors serve to reflect those noted by participating teachers and parents. Increased self-esteem and

motivation to learn, better attitudes toward self, school, teachers, and peers, and higher achievement skills were most frequently mentioned. The reasons for their impact upon children was described by one counselor when he stated "kids showed positive behavioral changes and became more attentive to academic tasks as they sensed that parents and teachers were supportive and concerned about what was happening." One tenured principal expressed the importance of reading as the key to developing children's positive feelings of self-esteem. She remarked, "I think approaching reading in this program was excellent--if you want to hit self-concept, you attack reading--you'll have it nailed." She then added, "I think this would work with other curricular areas too--such as mathematics; however, reading was the best one to hit at this time."

In deciding to implement the program again during the next school year, principals and counselors attempted to evaluate which if any aspects of the intervention program, as it had been conducted, should be changed or adapted to make it more effective. Some of these observations and suggestions included: providing teachers with an inservice training session prior to meeting with parents so as to indoctrinate all school personnel with the pragmatics and structure of the program earlier; giving teachers the same "on hand" materials as were given parents (i.e., parent handbook and conference procedure pamphlet); implementing the program earlier in the year; emphasizing more small group discussions during the inservice

meetings; holding monthly inservice meetings; expanding the program to all curricular areas, and attempting to involve greater numbers of children, parents, and teachers. One counselor expressed a sense of caution when he said, "One of the difficulties in trying to make this excellent program better is that one of the secrets of the program was that the teacher was working with only a few children rather than the entire class." Another counselor said, "We did a damn good job assisting parents--but we could have helped teachers more."

Virtually all counselors and principals strongly advocated the utilization of the IGM and STEP materials as integral to the intervention program. One facilitating counselor evaluated the IGE materials by stating, "The IGM program is not affectively oriented enough--it's mostly cognitive, stressing reinforcement, praise, and feedback--it needs verbal presentation and STEP materials to provide it on the parents' level." The counselor then noted, "The IGM movies set up the structure for the parents to use their STEP materials in." Another counselor supported these observations by stating, "If the STEP materials had not been in the program and used as a springboard for the small group discussions (during in-service training sessions), the parents would have perceived the lectures as dry and boring--too academic, and obviously would have received the program with less enthusiasm." On the other hand, one principal evaluated the IGM filmstrips by stating, "The benefit from

the movies was that they gave a visual feature on how to carry out the conferences. They demonstrated the relaxed, informality of the reading conference session. It also demonstrated the 'non-academic-stress'; it didn't emphasize the evaluative but rather the 'how do you feel about what you read,' the enjoyment part of it."

In summary, counselors and principals claimed that the program benefited all participants as well as those who had not participated. Often mentioned were those school personnel who had chosen to not participate in the program before its initial meeting, who instead had ignored the "sales-pitch" of their principals and counselors inviting their volunteer effort to participate in a "parent-teacher" program. It was observed that these same individuals were among the first to support the concept of a school-wide parent-teacher program objective for the next academic year. One principal remarked, "This program has started something--the band wayon is rolling."

INVESTIGATOR OBSERVATIONS

This research study was void of any serious data collection difficulties. All children were pretested within the week prior to the commencement of intervention and posttested again within a week of the conclusion of the program. Absent children on the day of the group administered assessments were usually seen during the next school day. All parents were interviewed in their homes on the same

pre-post schedule as the children were seen. Given the intense involvement of those participating in this program, the writer must describe the reception provided the interviewer by parents in their homes as most friendly and warm.

Fourteen of the 16 experimental parent(s) participated in all three inservice training sessions. The remaining two sets of parents each missed one meeting--either the second or third session. Both cited illness as the reason for their nonattendance. One set of these parents came to the school on the next day (after the previous evening session) to meet with the counselor to review the materials and inservice presentations and to visit with their youngster's teacher. The other family was contacted by phone to review the session and affirm the joint commitments of home and school.

It was observed that 25% of the experimental families were represented at the inservice sessions by the paternal parent. In all but one case these fathers came with the mother to participate in the meetings.

During the intervention program, one of the experimental teachers was hospitalized and had to remain out of school for a period of two weeks. Fortunately this teacher only had one child assigned to the experimental program. Even though the substitute replacement maintained the weekly teacher-child goal-setting conferences and weekly progress reports, and attended the inservice training sessions, the regular teacher called the "experimental youngster" at home at

least twice a week to hold "phone conferences" regarding the motivational-behavior goals and academic work progress.

Teachers reported that many of the experimental children had done "remarkably" or "significantly" better than they (teachers) had expected them to perform on the annual achievement testing conducted by the schools. This achievement testing was completed just two weeks prior to the conclusion of this intervention research effort.

During the administration of the psychometric indices utilized in this study the writer had the opportunity to observe the test-taking behaviors of all children as they completed the various inherent instruments and surveys. Inasmuch as these small group testing sessions involved both experimental and control subjects, behavioral differences as exhibited by these children were readily observable. Children who had not participated in the treatment program (control subjects) appeared to be less interested in their performance on the various instruments than did the experimental children. Overt and verbal expressions as made by those children who had been working with their parents in the various reading activities (experimental children) suggested that they were motivated to perform in a maximal fashion in their efforts on the psychometric indices, many of which (as was apparent to them) were oriented toward reading--i.e., the reading attitudes survey and the reading achievement test.

These experimental children appeared less restless, were more

obedient, followed directions more fully, attended to their tasks for longer periods of time and were generally more cooperative during the posttesting procedures than were control subjects.

It is assumed that these "optimal" test-taking behaviors as exhibited by the experimental subjects are reflected in their scoring performances as observed and reported here within this study. While the intervention program was not designed to impact on the test-taking behaviors of the children involved in the research study, it was quite apparent that while the behaviors as exhibited by both experimental and control children at the time of the pretest administration were commonly similar among all children, the behavior of the experimental children during posttesting as compared with their control counterparts was as reported notably different.

While not evaluated in the psychometric sense for analysis purposes in this study, it was observed that two families involved in the intervention program approached the school counselors seeking further professional assistance for their families. Both sets of parents contended that their involvement in the home-school-child program caused them to recognize their need for further guidance in their family interactions. Both families were referred to and accepted into therapy by a local psychologist specializing in family practice. Both families later reported an increased improvement in their family relations.

Teachers involved in the program reported that they began using

the conference procedures and parenting practices (presented at the inservice sessions) with their own children at home. Several teachers sought and obtained from this writer the reading materials (STEP handbook and IGM pamphlet) which had been provided parents at the first inservice meeting.

After several years of professional educational experience in various school systems, this writer can describe the school personnel who facilitated this program, as well as the involved teachers, as highly qualified and competent professionals who displayed their genuine devotion to the children and families involved in the intervention program. While this research effort did not seek to focus on impacting upon teacher behavior, the enthusiasm exhibited by these participating individuals certainly must be considered to have enhanced and fostered the treatment program of this research endeavor.

The schools (four buildings) involved in this study have all decided through their Instructional Improvement Committees (IIC) to incorporate the home-school involvement program as conducted and reported here as a school-wide objective for the next academic year. In addition, principals and counselors who were involved in this intervention effort have reportedly recommended to the Systemwide Program Committee (SPC) and the central administration office that such a program be considered for total system implementation.

Upon examination of the resulting data of the dependent measures

as reported earlier within this chapter, it was observed that virtually all children and their families were similarly affected by the intervention program. Therefore, it was deemed that any post hoc analyses on such variables as sex, social economic status, grade, race, teacher, or school differences were not necessary to be conducted at this time. Consequently, it is assumed that such variables had little or no effect on the results of this research endeavor.

HYPOTHESIS CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions as derived from the empirical evaluation regarding each of the hypotheses tested in this research study are as follows:

Hypothesis #1

There will be no significant differences between experimental and control groups in their levels of parent-teacher rapport.

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

Hypothesis #2

There will be no significant differences between experimental and control groups in their levels of parental involvement in their child's educational process.

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

Hypothesis #3

There will be no significant differences between experimental

and control groups in parental educational attitudes.

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

Hypothesis #4

There will be no significant relationship between a program of parent-teacher rapport, parental involvement in their child's educational process, and their:

(a) child's motivation to learn,

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

(b) child's self-esteem,

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

(c) academic attitudes,

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

and (d) reading achievement.

Conclusion: H_o is rejected.

V

DISCUSSION

SUMMARY

This dissertation effort sought to apply psychoeducational theory as emanated from research conducted with children, families and schools to the practical challenge of involving parents in the educational process of their children. Inherent in this endeavor were two basic assumptions. First of all, it was recognized that parents are the most determinant force in a young child's environment and secondly, over the past century, American society has done much to separate the institutions of family and education. Therefore, an intervention program was designed to alleviate the dichotomy existing between the home and school and to make maximal usage of the resources of parents as educators of their children.

The principles and concepts of two major programs were implemented to facilitate the involvement of parents in the educational process of their children. These were the system of Individually Guided Motivation (Klausmeier et al., 1975) and the program of Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976).

A major emphasis of this study was to assess the influences of increased parental involvement in the intervention program. These

evaluations were made in terms of any behavioral and attitudinal changes observed among the participating parents and teachers as well as by a number of child indices. Child variables that were assessed included the (1) child's level of self-esteem, (2) motivation to learn, (3) academic attitudes, i.e., toward reading, teacher, school, learning, and (4) reading achievement. The effect of the treatment program upon each dependent variable was assessed separately.

PARENT-TEACHER RAPPORT

There can be little question as to whether the treatment procedures designed to facilitate parent-teacher rapport were carried out by the experimental participants during the intervention period. As observed and reported earlier (see Table 4), all indices of communication between parents and teachers, i.e., conferences, weekly progress reports, contacts, learning material exchanges, etc., were significantly higher for the experimental families and teachers as compared with those in the control group. In fact, it was observed on many of these indices that experimental participants not only satisfied their contractual commitments (as completed by all experimental participants) but in actuality exceeded those prescribed behaviors by communicating more often via various means with one another during the treatment program.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Parent involvement as well as parent-teacher rapport were both

monitored before, during and after treatment so as to evaluate the fidelity of the treatment program. Like the measures of parent-teacher rapport, those measures assessing the involvement exhibited by parents in their child's learning activities were carried out by parents in complete compliance with the prescribed treatment procedures. Parents conducted the adult-child reading conferences, and other learning activities with their children in a manner which can be described as above and beyond the terms of their behavioral contracts (as completed by parents during the intervention period). For example, parents were asked to conduct two adult-child reading conferences weekly, each lasting approximately 15 minutes; according to posttest observations (see Table 5) parents and their children actually got together more than three times a week and for longer than 30 minutes per reading conference.

Similar observations were noted in the other parent-child learning activities conducted during the intervention period. As compared with control parents and children, all measures of parent involvement were significantly different between the groups favoring the treatment participants.

PARENT'S EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES

It was hypothesized that the educational attitudes as expressed by those parents participating in the intervention program would be improved as a consequence of their involvement in the educational process of their child. As reported earlier (see Table 6), experi-

mental parents expressed significantly more positive attitudes toward education and the public schools after the intervention period than did control parents. Upon examination of the transcripts of the post treatment interviews as held with experimental parents (see Chapter IV), it can be observed that many parents expressed a newly found respect, admiration and positive regard for their children's teachers, counselor, principal and school program having had the opportunity to observe, participate and relate with these educators in a manner never previously afforded them.

CHILDREN'S SELF-ESTEEM

Prior to the initiation of the treatment program all children (34 Ss) selected by teachers for inclusion in the intervention described themselves and how they felt about themselves on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory in negative or at least in a less than positive manner. These children might have been evaluated as possessing "low self-concepts." However, the group of children who with their parents and teachers participated in the intervention program vastly improved their perceptions about themselves by the conclusion of the treatment period. It was observed (see Table 7) that these experimental children expressed a significantly higher regard for themselves as compared with their control subject counterparts on all subscales of the Coopersmith Inventory. This included the perceptions of themselves as the child of their parents, a social mate of their peer group and as a student in their school.

According to the norms provided by Coopersmith, the experimental children at the time of posttesting were expressing their self-esteem evaluated to be near the upper quartile--thus indicative of high self-esteem.

As noted in the transcripts of the parent and teacher interviews (see Chapter IV), the experimental children were often evaluated by their parents and teacher to possess enhanced self-esteem as a direct result of the increased and different attention and activities afforded them by the "significant others" at home and school.

CHILDREN'S MOTIVATION TO LEARN

It was observed by parents, teachers and by the children's own responses on an index of motivation that the experimental children showed a significantly greater increase in their motivation to learn than did control children over the course of the treatment period. Teachers evaluated those behaviors exhibited by children thought to represent "general levels of motivation." They found that by the conclusion of the intervention program these motivational behaviors were exhibited more frequently by experimental students than by control classmates. Once again it can be observed on the transcripts of the parent and teacher interviews (see Chapter IV) that those children who with their parents and teachers had participated in the treatment program were often described as "more eager, more attentive, more interested in learning, and more motivated," etc.

CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC ATTITUDES

It was hypothesized that as a result of participating in the intervention program that the experimental children would express significantly more positive views toward their teacher, school climate, learning, and specifically reading as compared with those expressed by the control non-participating children. While both experimental and control subjects displayed similar attitudes toward their academic community prior to treatment, the experimental group did in fact express significantly different attitudes on several but not all attitudinal indices after treatment (see Table 10). It has been noted that both groups of subjects did not significantly differ in their views on the methods of instruction employed by their teachers. It was also observed (at posttesting) that experimental and control children quite agreed in their perceptions of the social structure and climate of their schools. Inasmuch as the treatment program did not attempt to alter the teacher's methods of instruction or the social structure of the classroom, it is understandable why these attitudinal views as expressed by the control and experimental subjects failed to differ. It might be added that the investigator deliberately designed the intervention modalities in such a manner as to not alter teacher-child behavior so that the effect of other variable changes (parental involvement) might be more empirically evaluated.

While the above mentioned indices of academic attitudes did not differ between the experimental and control groups it has been observed that on all other subscales of the School Sentiment Index including the overall total scale score did in fact significantly differ between experimental and control groups at the time of post-testing (see Table 10 and Figure 9). Those children who with their parents and teachers were involved in the treatment program expressed significantly higher (more positive) attitudes toward learning than did control children. Items on the School Sentiment Index which are purported to assess the child's attitude toward the academic learning experience as independent of attitudes toward school, teachers and subjects tap intellectual curiosity, willingness to study, voluntarism, interest in problem solving, etc.

Other attitudes as expressed by experimental subjects as significantly more positive than control subjects (after the treatment period) were attitudinal expressions concerning the teacher's authority and interpersonal relationships with pupils, peers, and schooling in general (independent of a particular school).

After participating in the treatment program, it was observed that on the Wisconsin Reading Attitude Inventory (developed by Dulin & Chester, 1975) experimental children expressed their willingness or desire to read a book (as compared with an alternative activity) significantly more often than control children (see Table 11). It appears that the experimental children when given a choice of leisure

activity (typically done at home) would prefer to read instead of "watching T.V., playing with a pet, drawing a picture, playing a game, or working on a hobby project." These children further expressed reading attitudes indicative of the pleasure they derive from such learning experiences. It was also observed on several of the transcripts of the parent interviews (see Chapter IV) that many parents commented on the increased amount of time they observed their child to be reading at home.

CHILDREN'S READING ACHIEVEMENT

Prior to the initiation of the treatment program experimental and control designated subjects were reading (as a group) at a similar level--approximately at a two and a half year level (see Figure 12). The reader may recall that the children involved in this research study were third and fourth graders and that the intervention program was carried out in the spring of the year. Therefore, these groups were reading anywhere from one to two years below what might be generally expected of youngsters their age. In fact, according to the national norms accompanying the Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test (utilized as the pre-post reading measure) these children were ranked at approximately the 10th or 26th percentile (depending on their grade) as compared with classmates. Over the course of the treatment period (between pre and posttest sessions) which was approximately two months, control children (as a group) gained approximately one month's reading attainment on the Metropolitan.

Experimental children who had participated in the various treatment program reading conferences and activities with their parents at home gained 12 months reading achievement during the course of the intervention program. Obvious statistical significance was analyzed between experimental and control groups.

It has also been noted on the transcripts of the teacher interviews (see Chapter IV) that many experimental children were reported as having made "remarkable and significant gains" in classroom reading and on the annual school reading achievement test administered near the completion of the intervention program. Experimental parents often remarked during post-trestment parent interviews (see Chapter IV) that their children not only now liked to read and were reading more, but were also reading better.

DISCUSSION

The effect of the treatment program on the various dependent measures included in this research study might well be described as dramatic. The impact upon the children and their families was observed to affect a host of perceptions, values, attitudes, skills and behavior as exhibited by those involved. The apparent changes in the lives of experimental participants must be considered as significant. The involvement of parents in the educational process of their children has been demonstrated to be reflected by increased home-school rapport, enhanced educational attitudes as expressed by parents and more importantly by such child variables as increased

self-esteem, motivation to learn, academic attitudes and reading achievement.

While the findings of this study support the advocation of home-school unity in the education of children some cautions are of course, necessary. Correlation does not necessarily mean causation, and when such intervention programs are based on small samples such as was this study (Total N = 34), restraint must be acknowledged. Mitigating variables in field research are always difficult to control. While the employed design controls for most validity variables, there are some external validity factors which deserve attention.

Humes' truism concerning generalization as never being fully justified logically is valid here. Concern must be expressed regarding the interaction of pretest experiences and the intervention program itself. The sensitizing effect on Ss (especially parents and teachers in this study) is acknowledged. Randomized assignment of control and experimental subjects aids the pretest-treatment interaction; however, full generalizability must be considered suspect.

The interaction of school/teacher/parent selection and treatment is in effect as the volunteerism and cooperation issue is relevant here. If for example, a parent involvement program were to be employed using an entire school population, parental reception may very well be different than was seen in this study--and quite possibly produce different results. The reactive responses by Ss as

affecting measurement is especially seen when dealing with attitude change studies. This limitation was somewhat controlled for by utilizing school staff for the inservice training. Also, teachers and children involved were not of "intact" classes but from several classes and various schools.

Given the parameters of subject selection with the N being dictated by teacher and parental cooperation, such extraneous variables as sex, race, and grade could not be controlled; thus, the sample groups may not have represented the normal population.

While not a central question to this study, the design and procedures did not allow for the analysis of what aspects of the intervention contributed to the observed variance. Such information would be extremely interesting, but at this point, the treatment program must be considered as a single package effect. The posttest interviews with participating parents, teachers, counselors and principals only served to suggest that all aspects of the intervention program were equally important as enhancing the objectives of treatment. Only slight or minor changes were recommended by these participants for future home-school programming.

This study did not permit the measurement of parent-teacher knowledge versus skill (derived from inservice). The researcher can only infer these skills from the self report measures, posttest interview measures and weekly progress reports provided by respondents.

Long term observations of parent-child interactions would have

been ideal, but given the parameters of the intervention program, any observations would have been certainly less than valid. The constraints of time imposed parameters restricting the duration of the intervention program. However, in recognition of the time frame available, the intervention procedures utilized in this study were significantly more intense and involved requiring greater commitments of energy, time and related human resources than had been observed in other similar studies which gained significant results (reviewed earlier: studies by Rich, 1974-77; Stanford Research Institute, 1973; Goodson & Hess, 1975; and Briggs, 1976).

Given the numerous limitations of field research (primarily the inability to control extraneous variables) treatment programs such as the one designed and implemented in this research endeavor often obtain insignificant, nonconclusive results. Indeed, in a review of almost 300 psychoeducational research studies, Frymier found that "no significant difference" is the most frequently reported research result (1969). The next most relevant question might be: Why did this intervention program obtain significant results?

In a preceeding chapter, a review of the research literature and theoretical considerations regarding parental involvement as affecting their children's cognitive development was presented. Certainly the results of this study support the bulk of research conducted in this area; however, an investigation of the psychological processes underlying children's cognitive development might provide

the reader with some additional insight.

Klausmeier has suggested that an individual's level of motivation is not something we can observe directly, rather "a motive is a hypothesized internal state--a condition within the individual that affects his readiness to initiate and continue any activity or sequence of activities" (1975, p. 122). Another cognitive theorist who has done significant research in motivational behavior is R. W. White (1959). He has studied children's motives as related to their desire for knowledge and achievement. White has coined the term "competence motive" as the sense of mastery (intrinsic satisfaction) that children feel when they are able to have an effect on their environment--such as mastery of a challenging task. White contends that when a child experiences a number of significant successes (e.g., such as on learning tasks), the cumulative product is increased competence motivation. This sense of competence is deemed not to be a unitary state but rather a diffuse experiential state of being that develops from a wide variety of activities and experiences. This internal state of mastery or motivation is thought to be critical to children's cognitive development. The maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self is the underlying motive of all behavior as posited by several major self theorists (Snygg & Combs, 1959; Rogers, 1951; Combs & Snygg, 1959). A dynamic quality of the self is the component known as motivation. "People are always motivated; in fact, they are nover unmotivated. They may not

be motivated to do what we would prefer they do, but it can never be truly said that they are unmotivated" (Combs, 1962, p. 85). It has been said that motivation initiates, maintains, and controls the extent and direction of behavior (Ringness, 1975, p 33). Ringness goes on to say that in the school setting student motivation must be considered as important as intelligence and prior learning experience.

What about self-esteem? Byrne defines self concept as "the total collection of attitudes, judgments, and values an individual holds with respect to his behavior, his ability, his body, his worth as a person--in short, how he perceives and evaluates himself" (1974, p. 271). Covington and Beery describe self-worth as the "individual's evaluative appraisal of himself" (1976, p. 5). If one accepts the notion of self-esteem being the internal state of self-enhancing and derogatory beliefs, attitudes and feelings that an individual holds for himself, then we could state quite simply that an individual's self-esteem is reflective of how that person perceives and feels about himself. Seymour Epstein states "There is a basic need for self-esteem which relates to all aspects of the self system, and in comparison to which, almost all other needs are subordinate" (1973, p. 407). Without further elaboration, let it be acknowledged that similar types of theories have been espoused contending that the child's cognitive development is primarily directly affected by the attitudes as held by the individual, and that these

internalized attitudes are reflective of the environmental experiences of the youngster (Symonds, 1939; Redl & Wineman, 1952; Block, 1952; Purkey, 1970; Covington & Beery, 1976).

Psychologists have long sought to understand cognitive development by defining the predisposing state of the internal nonphysical phenomenon thought to be the integral force dictating behavior. Much effort has been expended in an attempt to conceptualize the internal, intrinsic motivating forces, cognitive and symbolic processes, particularly with reference to the dynamic importance of self. This writer is unwilling to accept the premise that the internal state of the individual can be cleanly divided, measured and analyzed separately in various segments such as what has been termed as attitudes, self-esteem, motivation, or abilities. The self is perceived by the writer to be a complex interrelated system--with all parts relating to the whole of the self. It is contended that an individual's cognitive development is a product of the experiences processed by the self through daily living activities. It is further contended that the social, emotional, behavioral, and cognitive experiences of the individual are reflective in the internalized perceptions and expressions frequently described as the self. These perceptions and expressions are outwardly observed as manifestations of cognitive development.

In recognition of the impact that parents have upon the cognitive development of their children, it is therefore not surprising that

virtually all the child dependent measures observed in this study--all reflective of the individual's self and seen as the products of the supportive and reinforcing significant environmental forces of the child--the home and school--were significantly enhanced. When the child's cognitive development is considered as a product of all the psychological processes underlying the experiences of the individual, we can than be said to be evaluating the individual en tote.

IMPLICATIONS

This research study has served to emphasize the critical role of parents as educators of their children. The home and family provides the most formative educational environment for the child--far more than does the school. Recognition of this seemingly simple statement has yet to be made by most American public school systems today. Teachers no longer need to be held responsible by society for the total dydactic instruction and subsequent learning of our school aged children. Society cannot afford to ignore the educational resources found in the home. There must be steps taken to encompass and utilize the home as a partner together with the schools in providing children education.

The traditional barriers separating the home and school must be dissolved. Bridging the gap between the family and the schools needs to be considered as a primary objective by the school systems.

Children's development is molded by the significant forces in their environment. Figure 13 illustrates these primary forces as

they impact on the developing individual depicted as the Self. As can be observed, this illustration represents the environment as it is generally seen today. The environment is fragmented with its various institutions all impinging upon the cognitive development of the Self. The school and the family are far apart with rigid boundaries separating them. Education is the total responsibility of the schools, thus ignoring the resources of the family. The Self must develop by reacting to the various "significant forces" each as a separate entity.

In Figure 14 we observe a different state of affairs. The institutions of the family and the schools are joined to provide the major significant environment force supporting the development of the Self. The barriers between these major societal forces have been discarded. With the increased rapport resulting between the home and the classroom, parents and teachers have the opportunity to provide the developing Self with a receptive, understanding and supportive intellectual climate within the home and school. Certainly, parents involved in the developing Self's academic pursuits develop greater understanding and appreciation of learning experiences and achievement. Undoubtedly, the developing Self perceives the parents and teachers increased understanding of their educational activities as reinforcing, thus stimulating the Self towards self-directed learning behavior. With such teacher/home communication, parent expectations for the developing Self are decidedly more commensurate with the Self's abilities and present level of cognitive

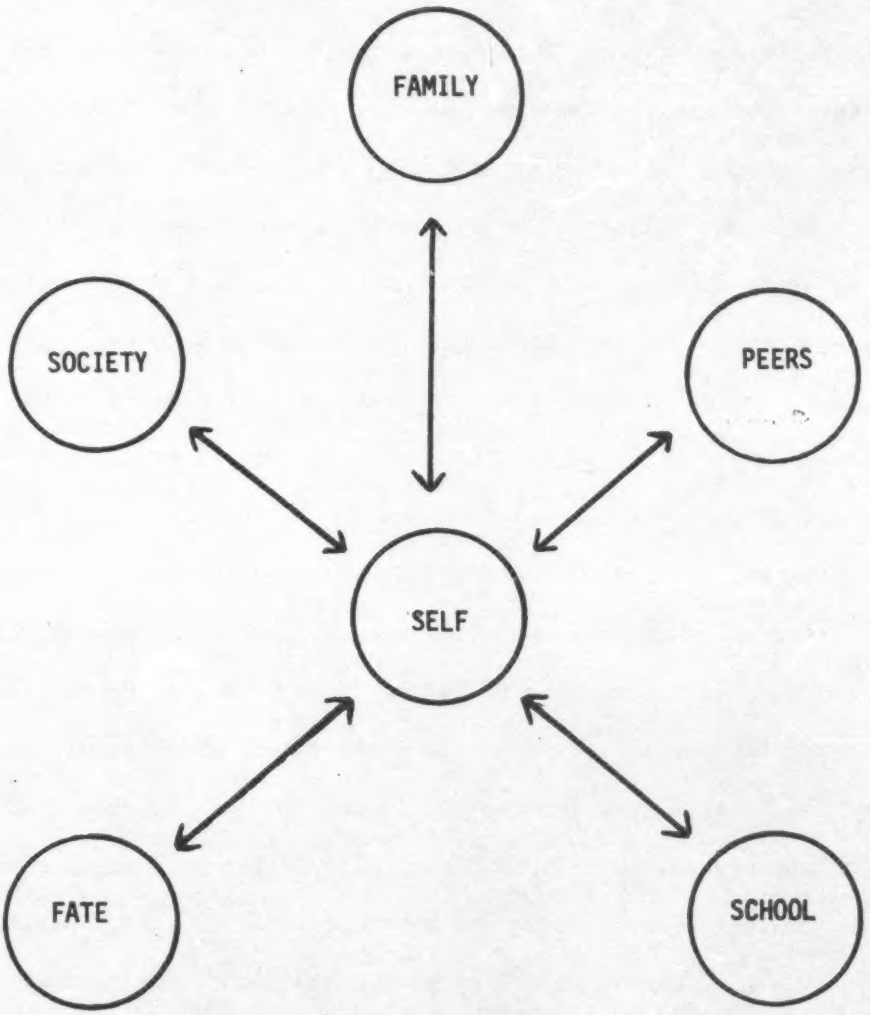


Figure 13. The primary environmental forces as they are observed to impact on the developing self.

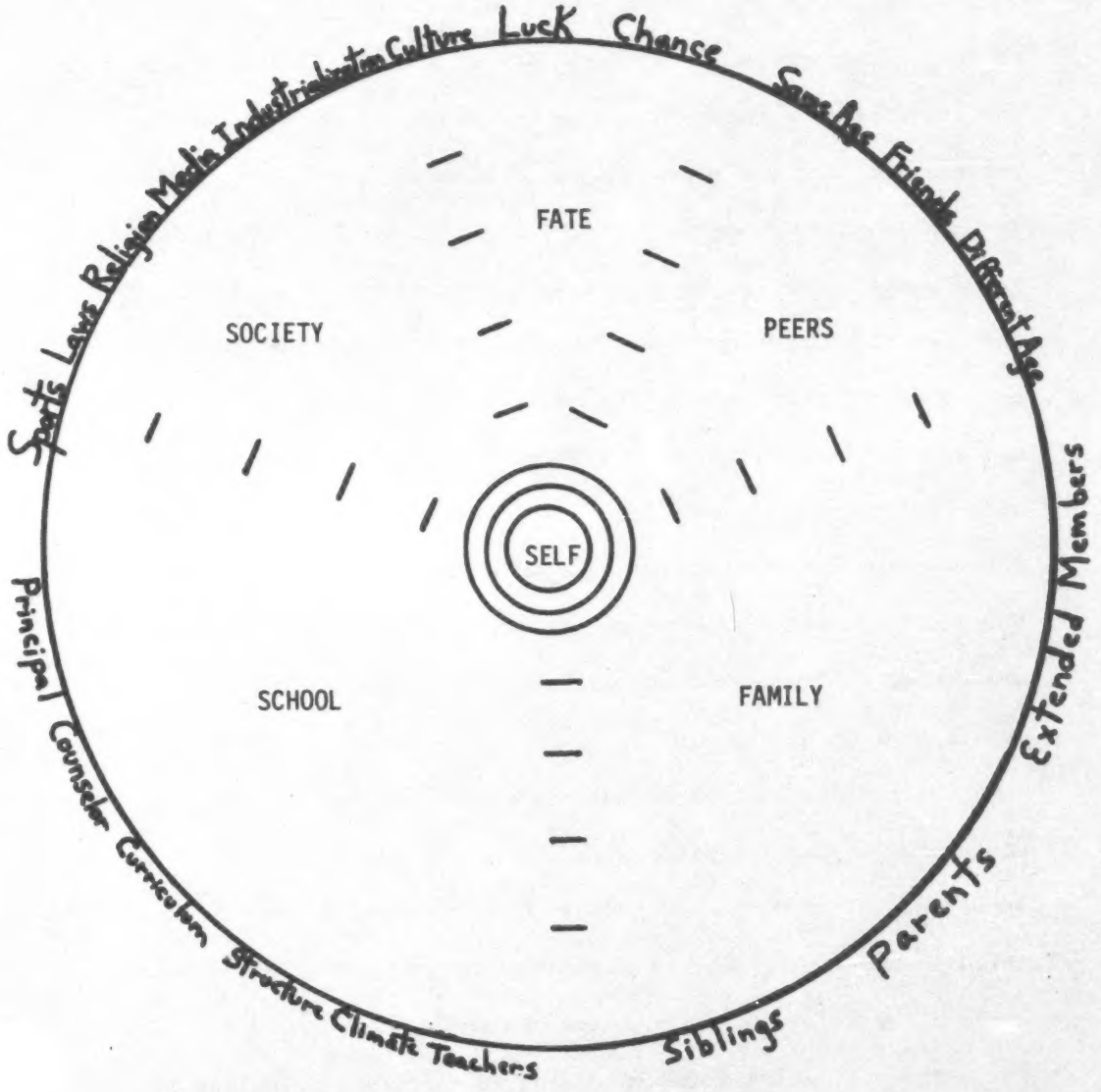


Figure 14. A model of a facilitative environment that enhances the cognitive development of the self.

development. It can be assumed that the developing Self perceives the parent who is knowledgable and supportive as a positive and valuable resource for further learning experiences. The schools recognize the trainability of parents to provide significant learning activities in the home. A mutual trust and respect develops between all educators--parents and teachers.

While it is recognized that further research on the relationships between the family and school environments as impacting upon the cognitive development of children is necessary, it is recommended that further energy and resources be expended to refine the measures of socio-psychological environments and behaviors. With such efforts coupled with longitudinal analyses, any replication of the research study presented here would then be likely to improve our understanding of the causal relations between the facilitating environments of home and school with that of children's cognitive development.

The results of this research endeavor support the conclusions postulated at its inception with such convincing uniformity that the importance of involving parents in the educational process of their children appears to deserve much more emphasis than is presently being afforded by our educational systems.

> "The self has a character which is different from that of the physiological organism proper. The self is something which has development; it is not initially there at birth, but arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relation to that process as a whole and to other individuals with that process." (G. H. Mead, 1934)

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APPENDIX A

PARENT LETTER AND REGISTRATION FORM

To the parents of _____:

School systems all across the country are constantly seeking better and more efficient methods for teaching our children. Recent educational research tells us that the role of the family and the home are perhaps the most important determinants of a child's success or failure in school. Consequently, many schools have implemented programs designed to develop an educational partnership between the home and the school. The results of these programs have been dramatic. Children whose parents have actively participated in these educational activities have shown remarkable gains in their academic achievement. These children respond to such cooperative parent-teacher efforts by improving reading and arithmetic skills, increasing their motivation to learn, and feeling better about themselves, their school, and their family. Realizing the importance of "family education," your child's school is now developing a parent-teacher program for a select number of children.

After attending school for three or four years, your child has learned a great deal as he/she has been exposed to many educational materials and teaching techniques. Ability assessments tell your child's teacher and you that he/she has the natural ability to learn successfully in school. However, we are convinced that your child could improve his/her academic skills and increase his/her desire to learn if both parents and teachers were to work together in a cooperative educational program.

From mid-April to the end of this school year, a parent-teacher cooperative education program will be implemented for a small number of elementary school children. This program will involve three inservice training sessions for both parents and teachers to be held after school hours. Your child's teacher, counselor, and principal have already agreed to attend these sessions with you. In addition to these three sessions, parents will be expected to spend approximately 30 minutes each week working at home with their child on school related activities. Parents and teachers will be provided with instruction, materials, and activities during the three inservice training sessions. There is absolutely no cost to parents to participate in this program. In fact, parents will be paid an honorarium for completing a short interview before and after the program. This interview will require less than 30 minutes of either or both parents' time.

(continued)

The tentative inservice meeting schedule for parents and teachers is as follows:

Session #1	April 16, 1977	Saturday from 9:00 to 12:00 A.M.
Session #2	Week of May 2-6	One 2-hour evening session; the exact date is to be set with parents at the April 16 meeting.
Session #3	Week of May 16-20	One 2-hour evening session; the exact date is to be set with parents at the April 16 meeting.

Before and after this parent-teacher cooperative educational program, all participating children will be asked to complete a survey of their own attitudes toward school and themselves as well as a reading achievement assessment. This information will be utilized to evaluate the effectiveness of the program.

Either one or both parents are invited to participate in the program. We hope that you will give this opportunity your serious consideration, for as we stated earlier, we are convinced that your child's schooling would be greatly improved if you were to participate in such a program as has been so briefly described in this letter. Your child's school counselor will call you shortly to answer any questions that you may have regarding this program.

If you decide to commit yourself to this parent-teacher educational program, your full attendance and cooperation will be expected. In order to reserve a space for you in this program, please return the attached attendance and agreement form by April 9, 1977.

We anxiously look forward to your reply.

Sincerely yours,

School Counselor

Attachment

REGISTRATION AND AGREEMENT FORM

_____ Please reserve a place for the parent(s) of _____ to participate in the Parent-Teacher Cooperative Educational Program. We will fully participate in the program.

_____ Do not reserve a place for the parent(s) of _____. We do not wish to participate in the Parent-Teacher Cooperative Educational Program.

_____
Parent's Signature

PLEASE RETURN THIS FORM TO THE SCHOOL VIA THE SELF-ADDRESSED ENVELOPE BY APRIL 9.

APPENDIX B

PARENT CONTRACT

PARENT CONTRACT

STUDENT'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

PARENT'S NAME: _____

I will attend the three (3) inservice training workshops and will work with my child at home each week for the duration of this program.

I agree to meet with my child twice a week for the next three weeks or until the next inservice training workshop (at which time a new contract will be drawn up). During these two weekly parent-child conferences I will make use of the skills and information provided in the inservice training workshop to encourage independent reading.

I will read the IGM and STEP materials as designated during the parent-teacher inservice training workshops.

Together, my child and I will select a time and place to hold the two weekly parent-child conferences.

I will use the reading materials the teacher sends home with my child on Friday's in the parent-child conferences to encourage independent reading. On Friday's I will receive and review a progress report from my child's teacher.

Every Monday I will send the teacher a weekly progress report of my child's reading activities at home during the parent-child conferences.

In addition to meeting with my child for two reading conferences each week, I agree to meet with him/her once a week to engage in some other activity related to reading. This activity is to be chosen and decided upon each

Parent Contract
Page 2

Date: _____

week between my child and myself at one of our reading conferences. We are totally free to chose whatever activity this is to be; the only requirement is that it allows us to utilize the skills we have covered in our reading conferences.

Activity examples are as follows: read a magazine together, go to the library together, read the directions to assemble a model or how to bake a cake together, etc.

Signed: _____
Parent

_____
Teacher

APPENDIX C

CHECKLIST FOR ASSESSING GENERAL LEVEL OF MOTIVATION

CHECKLIST FOR ASSESSING GENERAL LEVEL OF MOTIVATION

NAME OF STUDENT: _____ DATE: _____

Directions: Rate the child on each of the behaviors listed below. Put a number beside the behavior to indicate how often the child exhibits the behavior. Use this key:

1 = Seldom 2 = Sometimes 3 = Usually

	Behavior	Rating
1.	Listens to teacher	_____
2.	Listens to ideas of other children	_____
3.	Begins task promptly	_____
4.	Corrects mistakes	_____
5.	Asks teacher how he/she is doing on a task	_____
6.	Returns to task after being interrupted	_____
7.	Works after failure	_____
8.	Works to task completion	_____
9.	Works after teacher leaves room	_____
10.	Does additional school work during free time at school	_____
11.	Works beyond the quality of work expected	_____
12.	Works on school-related activities after school hours	_____
13.	Arrives at class on time	_____
14.	Seeks independent work	_____
15.	Participates in class projects	_____
16.	Reads independently	_____
17.	Helps peers when they need help	_____
18.	Follows directions	_____
19.	Picks up after learning activities	_____
20.	Takes care of personal and public property	_____

Total of Ratings _____

Average Rating _____

APPENDIX D

TEACHER CONTRACT

TEACHER CONTRACT

STUDENT'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

TEACHER'S NAME: _____

I agree to meet with _____ twice a week for
(Student's Name)
goal setting conferences over the next three weeks or until the next in-service training workshop (at which time a new contract will be drawn up). During these conferences the student and I will set individual goals for reading and select behavioral tasks from the Motivational Behavior Checklist which the student and I together agree need additional work.

I will meet with this student on _____ at _____ and
(Day of the Week) (Time)
_____ at _____. If for some reason a conference is missed
(Day of the Week) (Time)
due to absence or other school-related activities, I will make certain that the conference is conducted at some other time during that week to insure that two conferences take place each week.

I will send reading materials home on Friday's with this student that can be used in the parent/child reading conferences.

Every Friday I will send home with this student a weekly progress report describing reading behavior as well as other behavior discussed in the conferences. I will provide the school counselor with a copy of each report.

On Monday's I will receive and review a progress report from this student's parents which I will share with the school counselor.

Teacher Contract
Page 2

Date: _____

In two weeks this student and I will each evaluate his/her progress on the tasks selected from the Motivational Behavior Checklist. I will share the progress made on these behaviors with this student's parents at the next inservice training session.

Signed: _____
Teacher

_____
Parent(s)

APPENDIX E

WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORT -- TEACHER

WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORT -- TEACHER

Date: _____

To the Parents of _____:

I met with _____ _____ times this week in goal
(Student's Name) (# of Times)
setting conferences. At these conferences we worked together on the following reading activities and behaviors: _____

_____

_____.

Along with this report I am sending the following materials for you to use in your parent-child reading conferences: _____

_____

_____.

During this past week I saw your child's reading activities and behaviors as:

1	2	3
Working to Capacity	Showing Progress	Needing Improvement

.

Additional Comments: _____

_____

_____.

I am looking forward to receiving your progress report on Monday.

Sincerely,

_____
Teacher

APPENDIX F

WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORT -- PARENTS

WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORT -- PARENTS*

*(Note: This report is to be completed by the parent who is attending the inservice training workshops and working with the child in accordance with the program.)

Student: _____

Parent: _____ Date: _____

To _____ (Teacher's Name):

I met with my child, _____ (Child's Name), _____ (# of Times) times this week for parent-child conferences and to engage in other related reading activities. Our parent child conferences lasted about _____ (# of Min.) minutes each.

During these conferences we used the following school materials: _____

_____

_____.

In addition to the parent-child conferences we did the following reading-related activities: _____

_____.

I found time this week to read some of the IGM and/or STEP materials: Yes ____ / No ____.

Please indicate if you would like any of the following to contact you: Principal (Yes____/No____), Counselor (Yes____/No____), Teacher (Yes____/No ____).

Additional Comments: _____

_____.

Sincerely,

_____
Parent(s)

APPENDIX G

CHILD CONTRACT

CHILD CONTRACT

CHILD'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

PARENT'S NAME: _____

I, _____, agree to meet with my mother or
(Child's Name)
father twice a week until the end of the school year (7 weeks). During these conferences we will work on my reading. With my parent, we will select a time and place to hold these two weekly parent-child conferences.

On Fridays I will bring home to my parent a reading progress report from my teacher and any reading materials my teacher asks me to bring home to use with my parents during our reading conferences.

On Mondays I will take to my teacher a reading progress report from my parent.

My parent and I will pick something else that we will do together sometime during each week. We will decide this at one of our weekly conferences.

Signed: _____
Child

_____
Counselor

APPENDIX H

PARENT RAPPORT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (PRE-POST)

PARENT RAPPORT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
PRE-POST

PARENT'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

TEACHER'S NAME: _____

_____ 1. How many conferences with your child's teacher have you attended this year?

_____ 2. How many conferences with your child's teacher have you attended in the last two months?

_____ 3. How many contacts have you had in the last two months with the principal or guidance counselor of your child's school?

_____ 4. How many times during the last two months did you receive from the school an academic progress report regarding your child?

_____ 5. How often during the last two months have you received reading materials from school for your use with your child?

_____ 6. Have you had any communication other than conferences with your child's teacher in the last two months? If so, please designate who initiated the contact and how often such contacts were made.

	Contact Initiated by: Parent	Teacher	Frequency of Contacts
Phone Call	_____	_____	_____
Letter	_____	_____	_____
School Meeting, i.e., PTA	_____	_____	_____
Parent Visit to School	_____	_____	_____
Teacher Visit to Home	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX I

TEACHER RAPPORT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (PRE-POST)

TEACHER RAPPORT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-POST

TEACHER'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

CHILD'S NAME: _____

_____ 1. How many conferences have you held with _____'s parents (Child's Name) this school year?

_____ 2. How many conferences did you hold with these parents in the last two months?

_____ 3. How many times during the last two months did you send home to these parents an academic progress report regarding their child?

_____ 4. How often during the last two months have you sent reading materials home to the parents for their use with their child?

_____ 5. Have you had any communication other than conferences with these parents in the last two months? If so, please designate who initiated the contact and how often such contacts were made.

	Contact Initiated by: Parent	Teacher	Frequency of Contacts
Phone Call	_____	_____	_____
Letter	_____	_____	_____
School Meeting, i.e., PTA	_____	_____	_____
Parent Visit to School	_____	_____	_____
Teacher Visit to Home	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX J

PARENT INVOLVEMENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (PRE-POST)

PARENT INVOLVEMENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-POST

PARENT'S NAME: _____ DATE: _____

CHILD'S NAME: _____

_____ 1. How many times during the past two weeks have you worked with your child regarding his/her school reading lessons?

_____ 2. How much total time (in minutes) during the past two weeks have you spent working with your child on his/her school reading lessons?

_____ 3. How many times during the past two weeks have you worked with your child on learning activities other than reading?

_____ 4. How much total time (in minutes) during the past two weeks have you spent working with your child on learning activities other than reading?

_____ 5. How many times in the past month have you visited your child at school?

APPENDIX K

JUNIOR INDEX OF MOTIVATION SCALE (MODIFIED)

JUNIOR INDEX OF MOTIVATION SCALE (MODIFIED)

NAME: _____

TEACHER: _____

DATE: _____

Directions (Read silently while I read the directions out loud.)

We are trying to find out how students think and feel about a number of important topics. In order to do this, we would like to ask you to answer some questions. This is not an intelligence test or an information test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. The best and only correct answer is YOUR PERSONAL OPINION. Whatever your answer is, there will be many who agree and many who disagree with you. However, what we really want to know is HOW YOU FEEL about each statement.

Read each statement very carefully, and then indicate your agreement or disagreement by marking an X under AGREE or DISAGREE on the lines at the left of the statements.

You may have as much time as you need, so read each statement very carefully and answer it the best way that you can.

Example

AGREE	DISAGREE	
X	_____	Most kids like school recess.

* * * * * * *

AGREE	DISAGREE	
_____	_____	1. School is more fun when teachers let kids do things they want to.
_____	_____	2. Kids who try should get good grades even if they make mistakes.
_____	_____	3. Most kids want to go to school.
_____	_____	4. Some new ideas are interesting, but most of them are not.
_____	_____	5. Knowing the answer is more important than knowing where to get the answer.

(Go on to next page.)

AGREE	DISAGREE	
____	_____	6. Many kids feel grouchy.
____	_____	7. The best people do not depend on other people.
____	_____	8. A person's feelings about something are as important as the facts.
____	_____	9. It really helps to study about people from other lands.
____	_____	10. Life is mostly sadness with just a little happiness.
____	_____	11. Many youngsters often want to run away from home.
____	_____	12. Some teachers seem to enjoy making students unhappy.
____	_____	13. No one seems to understand kids.
____	_____	14. Most kids would like school better if teachers did not give grades.
____	_____	15. The world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
____	_____	16. There is nothing new under the sun.
____	_____	17. Life seems to be one big problem after another.
____	_____	18. Most people care about others.
____	_____	19. Many new ideas are not worth very much.
____	_____	20. Young people should not be free to do what they want.
____	_____	21. People who dream a lot at night might be crazy.
____	_____	22. People can only be so smart.
____	_____	23. People who are insulted often deserve to be.
____	_____	24. Learning outside of school is good, but learning in school is better.
____	_____	25. People who are quick thinkers often jump to conclusions.
____	_____	26. Most people do not have good ideas until they grow up.
____	_____	27. Looking good is just as important as being good.

(Go on to next page.)

AGREE	DISAGREE	
_____	_____	28. Famous people often have a lot of money.
_____	_____	29. Most kids cannot learn from what happens to other people.
_____	_____	30. Most teachers like to push students to work more if they have the chance.
_____	_____	31. A person can never want too much of a good thing.
_____	_____	32. Telling a lie is better than saying a bad thing about someone.
_____	_____	33. Asking questions often gets you into trouble.
_____	_____	34. Not many people in the world are really bad.
_____	_____	35. Teachers know more and do less than most other people.
_____	_____	36. School is not all that it's supposed to be.
_____	_____	37. Everything that people do is either right or wrong.
_____	_____	38. Quick thinking is always better than being polite.
_____	_____	39. We are never really as happy as we think we are.
_____	_____	40. All those who fail have worked for nothing.

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